THE

EDINBURGH MAGAZINE,

OR

LITERARY MISCELLANY,

FOR *AUGUST* 1802;

With a View of AUCHENCRUIVE, the Seat of ARCHIBALD OSWALD, Esq.

From a Drawing taken on the spot by Mr DENHOLM *of Glasgow.*

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State

State of the BAROMETER, in inches and decimals, and of Farenheit's THERMOMETER in the open air, taken in the morning before sun-rise, and at noon; and the quantity of rain-water fallen, in inches and decimals, from July 26. to Aug. 25. 1802, in the vicinity of Edinburgh.

1802.	Barom.	Thermom. M.	Thermom. N.	Rain. In. Pts.	Weather
July 26	29.601	52	56	0.07	Rain
27	29.7	50	60	——	Cloudy
28	29.5	49	64	0.705	Rain
29	29.421	48	58	0.155	Ditto
30	29.441	49	60	0.075	Ditto
31	29.55	50	60	0.151	Ditto
Aug. 1	29.9	50	65	——	Cloudy
2	29.945	49	56	0.021	Shower
3	29.91	50	55	0.4	Rain
4	29.8	52	62	0.101	Ditto
5	29.831	50	64	——	Cloudy
6	29.671	53	71	——	Ditto
7	29.55	56	66	——	Ditto
8	29.521	49	63	0.271	Rain
9	29.611	56	63	0.2	Ditto
10	29.65	52	72	——	Clear
11	29.621	52	70	0.051	Rain
12	29.751	53	68	——	Clear
13	30.	45	63	0.002	Shower
14	30.1	48	72	——	Clear
15	29.802	50	62	0.271	Rain
16	29.85	54	70	——	Cloudy
17	29.789	53	76	——	Clear
18	29.631	56	73	0.002	Shower
19	29.451	58	66	——	Cloudy
20	29.451	58	66	0.05	Rain
21	29.371	56	58	0.402	Ditto
22	29.521	53	60	0.1	Ditto
23	29.589	56	59	0.101	Ditto
24	29.501	56	63	0.05	Ditto
25	29.22	50	56	0.15	Ditto

Quantity of Rain 3.328

High Water at LEITH for SEPT. 1802.

Days.	Morn. H.	Morn. M.	Even. H.	Even. M.
W. 1.	4	34	4	49
Th. 2.	5	6	5	24
Fr. 3.	5	42	6	1
Sa. 4.	6	23	6	49
Su. 5.	7	19	7	54
M. 6.	8	37	9	28
T. 7.	10	22	11	12
W. 8.	11	56	—	—
Th. 9.	0	34	1	6
Fr. 10.	1	27	1	52
Sa. 11.	2	15	2	34
Su. 12.	2	51	3	7
M. 13.	3	23	3	39
T. 14.	3	56	4	13
W. 15.	4	31	4	51
Th. 16.	5	13	5	36
Fr. 17.	6	1	6	28
Sa. 18.	6	59	7	32
Su. 19.	8	8	8	47
M. 20.	9	28	10	5
T. 21.	10	40	11	14
W. 22.	11	47	—	—
Th. 23.	0	12	0	35
Fr. 24.	0	56	1	15
Sa. 25.	1	32	1	48
Su. 26.	2	4	2	20
M. 27.	2	36	2	52
T. 28.	3	8	3	24
W. 29.	3	40	3	57
Th. 30.	4	15	4	33

MOON.

	D.	H.	M.	
First Qrtr.	5	6	28	Morn.
Full Moon,	11	10	33	Even.
Last Qrtr.	18	7	23	Even.
New Moon	26	11	43	Even.

1802. *Sept.* 10. Buck-hunting ends.

11. Visible eclipse of the Moon. (See p. 89.)

14. Partridge-shooting begins.

22. King's Coronation.

29. Michaelmas.

30. Hare-hunting begins.

The

THE EDINBURGH MAGAZINE, OR LITERARY MISCELLANY, FOR *AUGUST* 1802.

Description of AUCHENCRUIVE. *(With a View.)*

AUCHENCRUIVE, the ſeat of Richard Oſwald, Eſq. is ſituated in the pariſh of St Quivox, and county of Air, at the diſtance of about three miles from that town.

The houſe is modern, and commands an extenſive, rich, and varied proſpect, particularly down the rich vale of the water Air, which winds thro' the park. The pleaſure grounds are laid out with much taſte, and contain many beautiful walks, particularly along the banks of the river, which is here croſſed by an elegant bridge. The gardens and green-houſe are extenſive and much admired: but what renders Auchencruive ſtill more worthy of attention, is the fine collection of pictures, amongſt which are many productions of the firſt maſters, particularly in the branches of the art, hiſtory and landſcape painting. *J. D.*

Memoirs of the PROGRESS *of the* PHYSICAL SCIENCES *and the* USEFUL ARTS.

THE reciprocal influence of the ſciences and the arts on each other's advancement, was never more conſpicuous than in the preſent age. We owe to ſcience, the high improvement, among other things, of our optical inſtruments; and by theſe, the diſcoveries of Aſtronomy have been, in the progreſs of the eighteenth and the beginning of the nineteenth centuries, carried beyond whatever could be expected, even by Newton and his contemporaries. Dr Herſchel's diſcovery of the new primary planet, to which he gave the name of the Georgium Sidus, is the firſt of that importance, which has been made, in this planetary ſyſtem, ſince modern aſtronomy began to explore the heavens. We have already related the circumſtances of a more recent diſcovery by Mr Piazzi at Palermo, which has added yet another, under the appellation of Ceres Ferdinandea, to the number of the known planets. On the 28th of March laſt, a third planet, unknown to the ancients, was diſcovered at Bremen, by Dr Olbers, an eminent phyſician and aſtronomer of that place. He obſerved its motion for three days; and then tranſmitted information of what he obſerved, to baron Von Zach at Gotha. On the 4th and 5th, Von Zach, in the obſervatory at Seeberg, diſcovered the ſame planet. It has been alſo ſeen by Mr Schroeter, at Lilienthal; by Mr Stephen Lee, at Hackney; and by Mr Aubert, at Highbury-place. It is deſcribed as of a pale red colour, and leſs brilliant in its appearance than the planet diſcovered by Mr Piazzi. Its mean diſtance from the ſun is believed to be equal to 2 one-tenth diſtances of the earth from that luminary. Its orbit is underſtood to be very eccentric. Its term of

revo-

re olution is ſuppoſed to be three years: and it will ſoon ceaſe, for a time, to be viſible from the earth.

An aſtronomical obſervatory is about to be eſtabliſhed at Hamburgh by Prince Henry of Wurtemberg, uncle to the emperor of Ruſſia. He has purchaſed, with a view to that, a fine ſet of aſtronomical inſtruments made by Megnié, a Pariſian artiſt.

A ſingle meteorous phenomenon was obſerved, in the month of May, at Derby. In the air, appeared four complete circles, and a ſection of a fifth. The ſmalleſt of theſe, was the moſt elevated, about 15° in diameter, with luminous ſpots to the right and left. The ſecond was twice as large as the firſt, and ſeemed to encompaſs it. The third was of the ſame magnitude as the ſecond, the circumference of which it touched on the weſt ſide. The fourth embraced the former three, within its extent. On its weſtern ſide was a portion of a fifth circle.

The ſcience of Mineralogy, one of the moſt conſiderable branches of natural hiſtory, and entering equally into chemiſtry, has been very diligently ſtudied in this country within theſe laſt twenty years. Among the ancients, it had ſcarcely exiſtence, as a branch of ſcience. The Germans and the Swedes were the firſt to cultivate it with ſucceſs, in modern times. It began to gain ſome attention in England, in the reign of queen Eliſabeth, when German adventurers were encouraged to engage in the ſearch for mines in Wales, and in the north and weſt of England. Metallic ores, and the ſtones and earths of the ſtrata containing them, as alſo pit-coal and the foſſils found near it, with thoſe which have been called the precious ſtones, firſt engaged the attention of enquirers into theſe things, ſo as to be numbered and deſcribed as particular minerals. In the inveſtigations reſpecting theſe, it became gradually requiſite to enumerate and deſcribe as many as poſſible of the reſt. At length, the mineralogiſts of Sweden formed regular ſyſtems, in which they arranged, deſcribed, and diſtinguiſhed all mineral or foſſil bodies, by the external properties of figure, hardneſs, ſtructure, fracture, ſpecific gravity, colours, and apparent homogeneity or heterogeneity. The mineralogiſts of Germany, France, and Britain, adopted their method, and followed their example. Still, however, the arrangements founded upon theſe exterior qualities, were inconvenient, imperfect, and unſatisfactory, till the aid of chemical analyſis was called in. Mr Kirwan, now Preſident of the Royal Iriſh Academy, attempted to eſtabliſh a ſyſtem of the arrangement of foſſils upon chemical analyſis alone. To forego the uſe of the exterior qualities eaſily appeared to be the ſacrifice of an important advantage. But from that time, the phyſical and the chemical characters have been, in all ſyſtems, combined. Werner, Kirwan, Schmeiſſer, and others have exhibited, in ſyſtems, the chemical and phyſical hiſtory of all the mineral and foſſil bodies which had been ſufficiently examined at the times when they reſpectively wrote. The hiſtory, both chemical and phyſical, of ſtones and other foſſils, has been ſince very rapidly enlarged. In England, Ireland, and Germany, a prodigious number of new analyſes of theſe bodies has been made. And, within theſe few years, an inſtitution has ariſen in London, by which mineralogical reſearches begin to be here purſued more zealouſly and ſucceſsfully than ever before. This has taken the name of the Britiſh Mineralogical Society. It had its commencement in the year 1799. The primary object which its founders had in view, was to analyſe all Britiſh minerals which ſhould be tranſmitted to them by any correſpondent, and to communicate to that correſpondent, gratis, the reſults of the analyſis.

They

They have ſince purſued that object with conſiderable ſucceſs. They are now endeavouring to procure liſts of the mines, quarries, and mineral ſprings in every county. They have been ſo fortunate as already to obtain in manuſcript, a mineralogical map of Cornwall. They are preparing to publiſh, in a ſhort time, a full and accurate gloſſary of the miner's terms of Cornwall, Wales, and Derbyſhire. At one of their late meetings, a deſcription of the *ſatin ſpar*, a new mineral recently diſcovered on Alſton-moor, in Cumberland, was read: and the reſults of a chemical analyſis of it, were, at the ſame time, communicated. It contains in 100 parts, 47 6 of carbonic acid, 50·08 of lime, ·012 of iron, of water of cryſtallization, as was ſuppoſed, 2·308 parts. It has nearly the colour and luſtre of white ſatin, is of a peculiar fibrous texture, is ſuſceptible of the moſt exquiſite poliſh, and ſeems on the whole, to rank as a mineral between compact ſtalactites and ſlaty ſpar.

A Mr Coulomb has lately communicated to the national inſtitute at Paris, ſome important facts which throw a new light on the ſcience of Magnetiſm. By theſe it appears, that needled forms of gold, ſilver, copper, lead, tin, glaſs, chalk, bone, are, as well as needles of iron, ſuſceptible, though leſs ſenſibly, of the magnetic influence. The knowledge of this fact, may perhaps ultimately lead to the diſcovery of ſome intereſting general truth relative to the ſtratification and the configuration of the earth.

The devaſtations by earthquakes are ſtill renewed in different parts of the world. It is to be hoped from the accuracy with which theſe tremendous phenomena are now obſerved, that their general cauſes, and, perhaps alſo, ſome expedients for mitigating their fury, may be at length aſcertained. A burning mountain in Banda, one of the Indian ſpice iſlands, has waſted the ſurrounding country, within theſe laſt twelve months, by a dreadful exploſion. For ſome time before that event, the air had been humid; and low hollow noiſes had been heard from the bowels of the earth.—At Lodi, in Italy, ſimilar ſhocks of an earthquake have been recently felt. No lives were there deſtroyed; nor any other material injury done. The town of Crema, however, about ten miles diſtant from Lodi, was, by the ſame earthquake, almoſt entirely demoliſhed. The village of Menguin, which ſtood on the banks of a beautiful lake about forty miles from Lodi, has been, at the ſame time, with all its inhabitants, ſwallowed up in the lake.

In Medical Science, it has been aſcertained by Mr Brera, in Italy, by experiments which Mr Chretien, an ingenious French phyſician, has ſince repeated and extended, that various medicines may be applied, through the abſorbent veſſels of the ſkin, for the cure of different diſeaſes, more ſucceſsfully than in any other way. It was formerly the practice of ſome phyſicians to adminiſter the cure of the venereal diſeaſe, by rubbing in mercury at the gums. Mr Brera and Mr Chretien have applied the principle of this practice, in a much greater variety of inſtances, than it had been before tried in.

Galvaniſm now begins to be ſucceſsfully applied in Germany to *medical purpoſes*. Mr Schaub, an apothecary, is related to have, by three weeks of application of the ſhock from the Voltaic pile, reſtored ſoundneſs and ſenſibility of hearing, to a perſon who had been deaf for the ſpace of eighteen years. Mr Friſchefen, Profeſſor of Philoſophy at Saltzburgh, is alſo ſaid to have effected a number of cures on the blind, the lame, and the deaf, by the uſe of a Voltaic pile of 300 plates.

It has been diſcovered experimentally in this country, that gentle friction

tion with the tips of the fingers, or with the whole hand, not long continued at once, nor with one hand only, but with the two hands alternately, and applied at the cheeks, the temples, the brow, and over all the hairy part of the head, will operate as a perfect remedy for rheumatiſm in the head, and for all toothaches depending upon rheumatic affections. The frictions ſhould be employed with perſeverance, and after ſhort intervals continually renewed till the diſeaſe be entirely overcome. Peruvian bark with wine, and other roborant medicines, ſhould be, at the ſame time, taken internally. The friction cannot fail of acting with complete ſucceſs, unleſs it be negligently applied, or if the general ſtate of the patient's health be extremely languid and feeble, and not invigorated by internal ſtimuli. The beneficial agency of this friction is, by continually producing a new paſſage of galvaniſm, or electricity, throughout the head. The galvaniſm, thus put in action, not only rouſes the languid circulation of the blood, but produces effects more peculiar and beneficial, by renewing the energies of the finer veſſels on which depend all thoſe more ſubtile ſecretions which are made from the blood. It is in the interruption of theſe ſecretions that rheumatiſm conſiſts. Nothing but what renews them with full energy, can have power to cure it. The ſame operation may be applied to the cure of rheumatic affections in any other part of the body: but the experiments, of the ſucceſs of which we have been particularly informed, were made upon rheumatiſm in the head.

Mr John Donaldſon of Briſtol has lately diſcovered a method of conſtructing glaſs-houſes, by means of which the proceſſes of the manufacture for which they are intended, may be conſiderably quickened. By this improvement, the furnace of the glaſs-houſe is built of the uſual form. It is then ſurrounded with another building, of dimenſions ſufficiently large to leave every where an interval between the exterior ſurfaces of the walls of the incloſed edifice, and the interior ſurface of the walls of the incloſing one. The outer building is, notwithſtanding this interval, ſo connected with the inner one of the furnace, that no air can, through the two, have acceſs to the fire any where but at the aſh-pit and grate. The heated and rarefied air paſſing out by the flues of the furnace fills in its paſſage the interval between the two edifices. This heated air thus confined, gives a command of a higher temperature than could be otherwiſe obtained. While the workmen are buſy in the glaſs houſe, certain iron doors, opening to the external air, are withdrawn for the convenience of the work. But, on the Saturday night, when the furnace is emptied, the pots, in Mr Donaldſon's glaſs-houſe, are recharged with the matter for fuſion. All the apertures of the outer building are then ſhut up. The heated air is confined in the interval between the two ſtructures. And a heat thus operates, by which, without other attention on Sunday, the materials are brought, by Monday morning, into a ſtate in which the making of the glaſs may be at once renewed. Thus a conſiderable ſaving is obtained of both time and fewel in one of the moſt valuable manufactures belonging to this country.

The preſent ſtate of the glaſs manufacture in this iſland is ſuch as to make it one of the proudeſt boaſts of Britiſh art. It was long confined excluſively to the ſhores of the Mediterranean ſea. From Venice it was introduced at London, about the beginning of the reign of king Charles the Firſt. The firſt glaſs works were erected in Broad Street. The civil wars ſoon interrupted their operations, ſo that the manufacture ſeems to have ceaſed entirely from a ſhort time

time after the diſcontents aroſe to their height till the reſtoration of Charles II. and the inſtitution of the Royal Society. The ſecond Duke of Buckingham, the Zimri of Dryden in his Abſalom and Achitophel, renewed the manufacture of glaſs in London, at a prodigious expence. He was deſtined to be the founder of its proſperity. Spratt, in his Hiſtory of the Royal Society, mentions, that even before the year 1670, glaſs, preferable for aſtronomical uſes to any that could be procured from Venice, was made at the Duke of Buckingham's works in London. Before the year 1714, they had, by the account of Sir Richard Steele, increaſed ſo ſucceſsfully, as to afford to England, by their exportation, a return of not leſs than 50,000l. ſterling, a year. Still the alkali or barilla, which is combined in the formation of glaſs with pure ſiliceous earth, was to be procured, at great expence, from abroad, But, at length, it was diſcovered that the ſame alkali might be abundantly obtained by the combuſtion of the marine plants growing around our own coaſts. Within theſe laſt fifty years, this diſcovery has been, with the greateſt ſucceſs, purſued into effect. Hence, the glaſs-works of London have become continually more extenſive; and around all the coaſts of the iſland, at Briſtol, for inſtance, Liverpool, Glaſgow, Dumbarton on the one ſide, and at Yarmouth, Newcaſtle, Leith, and we believe alſo, Dundee on the other, eſtabliſhments for the manufacture of glaſs, exiſt in a highly flouriſhing ſtate. The ſea weeds around the coaſts are burnt into what is called *kelp;* and from rocks and ſand which yielded, anciently, no uſeful produce, a conſiderable new revenue is now derived by the landholders. The moſt various and elegant articles for uſe and for ornament are now made of glaſs. Vaſt quantities of it are annually conſumed at home; and the exportation to almoſt all the countries to which we trade, is very great.

In the important art of Agriculture, the principal improvement lately made, conſiſts in the methods adopted to fertilize the peat earth of our moors and moraſſes, or rather to excite its natural and latent fertility, for the purpoſes of uſeful vegetation. By this improvement, the grounds containing peat earth, are, if they be marſhy, drained, by detecting the ſprings opening them, cutting runners to convey their water into one great ditch, and by it conveying away the whole of its ſuperfluous moiſture. A thin paring of the ſurface, ſo as to cut away that part of the turf which is filled with the roots of the heath and other plants naturally growing in ſuch a ſoil, is the firſt operation which ſucceeds the draining. The turfs pared off are then burnt in heaps. The aſhes are ſcattered on the ſurface. Where the proceſs is conducted with the greateſt ſagacity, quick-lime, the pureſt and ſtrongeſt that can be obtained, is farther employed, in a certain proportion, as a manure. The ground is then plowed. Where this may be convenient, it receives repeated plowings after ſhort intervals. Potatoes are then, by the moſt judicious managers, planted in it, as the firſt crop. Wheat ſucceeds, on the ſecond year. On dry moors, the management is the ſame as on moraſſes in all reſpects, but that draining is not here neceſſary. By the extenſion of this grand improvement in huſbandry, ſome millions of acres, now comparatively barren, are likely to be rendered ſoon ſubſervient to the beſt uſes of tillage and paſturage.

The exhibition of the beſt productions of the Arts of Deſign, in Britain, during the laſt year, has lately cloſed. Never were the walls of the apartments of the Royal Academy, more intereſtingly covered. Of the hiſtory-pieces, however, it is to be acknow-

knowledged, that they have diſplayed little of that wildneſs, that boldneſs, that majeſty, that aſtoniſhing, yet happy originality of figures, attitudes, grouping, and expreſſion, which exalt the painter to an equality of power with the epic and tragic poet. They poſſeſſed too much of the tameneſs of hiſtory, tranſcribed by a writer poſſeſſing neither the illumination of the philoſopher, nor the poet's divine enthuſiaſm. Some of the pieces, repreſenting the pathetic of the domeſtic life, ſeemed to poſſeſs genuine excellence. The landſcapes, and the ſcenes from familiar rural life, were, in many inſtances, evidently happy efforts of genius. The portraits were exceſſively numerous, in many inſtances excellent, but too often in attitudes either awkward and ſpiritleſs or conſtrained and affected. The models, and works of ſculpture, were perhaps, in their kind, more admirable than any of the other parts of the exhibition.

Tranſlation of a Note written by PETRARCH'S *own Hand in the Margin of a* MANUSCRIPT VIRGIL, *which formerly belonged to him, and is now depoſited in the Ambroſian Library at* MILAN.

LAURA, who has been rendered famous by her virtues, and who has been the ſubject of my verſe for many years, appeared to my eyes for the firſt time on the ſixth of April 1327, in the church of St. Clair at Avignon.

In the ſame church, on the ſame day, at the ſame hour, in 1348, that luminary, that ſun, retired from the world. I was at Verona, and knew not the misfortune that had befallen me: but on the nineteenth of the following month I received a letter from my friend Lewis, which acquainted me with the fatal news. On the very day of her death, her body, ſo beautiful, ſo pure, was depoſited, after veſpers, in the church of the Cordeliers. I doubt not but her ſoul, to ſpeak in the words of Seneca, returned to heaven, from which it had deſcended.

That I may never loſe the remembrance of a loſs ſo afflicting, I have written theſe particulars in a book which I am continually reading: thus have I prepared myſelf a pleaſure mingled with grief. This loſs, conſtantly preſent to my memory, will inſtruct me, that nothing here below can contribute to my happineſs; and that it is time for me to renounce the world, ſince the bond that held me to it by the tendereſt attachment is broken. I hope, with the aſſiſtance of Heaven, this renunciation will not be difficult: my mind, inceſſantly turned to the paſt, will perceive that the cares which employed it were vain, that the hopes which it cheriſhed were deceitful, and that the ſchemes it formed terminated only in ſorrow and diſappointment.

Anecdote of Mr WILKES.

MR WILKES, going to the King's Head chop-houſe in Pater-noſter Row, with a friend, in order to obſerve the humours of the place, accidentally ſeated himſelf near a rich and purſe-proud citizen, who almoſt ſtunned him with roaring for his *ſteak*, as he called it. Mr Wilkes, in the mean time, aſking him ſome common queſtion, received a very brutal anſwer. The ſteak coming at that inſtant, Mr Wilkes turned to his friend, ſaying, See the difference between the city and the bear-garden; in the latter the bear is brought to the ſtake, but here the ſteak is brought to the bear.

For

For the Edinburgh Magazine.

Celestial Phenomena *for* September 1802.

Wednesday, Sept. 1.

THE planet Mercury will arrive at his ſuperior conjunction with the Sun, about 50 minutes after 7 o'clock in the evening. The longitude of the Sun and Mercury is then 5ˢ..8°..35′..32″, and Mercury's latitude 1°..42′ north.

On the ſame day, about 30 minutes after 5 o'clock in the morning, the Moon will be in conjunction with *Spica*, or *α Virginis*.

Saturday, Sept. 4.

The planet Saturn will be in conjunction with the Sun about 30 minutes after 3 o'clock in the morning, in longitude 5ˢ..10°..51′..30″. The latitude of Saturn is then 1°..42′ north.

On the ſame day, about 28 minutes after 9 o'clock in the evening, the Moon will be in conjunction with *Antares*, or *α Scorpionis*.

Tuesday, Sept. 7.

About 11 o'clock in the evening, the planet Jupiter will be in conjunction with *σ Leonis*, a ſtar of the 4.5 magnitude, ſituated in longitude 5ˢ..15°..56′..36″. The latitude of Jupiter being 1°..1′..21″ north, and that of *σ Leonis* 1°..41′..50″ north; the diſtance of their centers, at the time of conjunction, will be 40′..31″, and Jupiter will paſs to the ſouth of the ſtar.

Thursday, Sept. 9.

The Moon, in her paſſage through the Zodiac, will eclipſe *γ Capricorni*, a ſtar of the fourth magnitude, ſituated in the tail of Capricorn, in longitude 10ˢ..19°..0′..42″, and latitude 2°..32′..6″ ſouth. About 46 minutes after 12 o'clock in the evening, the ſtar will come in contact with the eaſtern or obſcure limb of the Moon, at which time it is ſituated about 11 minutes and a half to the north of her center; and, after continuing behind her diſc for the ſpace of 52 minutes, it will emerge from behind the Moon's enlightened limb at 38 minutes after one o'clock next morning, when it will be found about 5½ minutes to the north of the Moon's center. About the middle of the occultation, the enlightened is to the obſcure limb of the Moon, as 11.321 to 0.679. Her horizontal parallax 61′..9″; her horizontal ſemidiameter 16′..40″; and ſhe will come to the meridian about 9 minutes after 10 o'clock in the evening.

On the ſame day, about 17 minutes after 7 o'clock in the evening, the planet Jupiter will be in conjunction with the Sun in longitude 5ˢ..16°..21′. Jupiter's latitude is then 1°..2′ north.

Saturday, Sept. 11.

Viſible Eclipſe of the Moon.

A partial eclipſe of the Moon will take place in the evening, and, as the Moon's altitude, above the horizon, is very great at the time of conjunction, it will be completely viſible to all the inhabitants of this country. The Moon's eaſtern limb will firſt appear to come in contact with the earth's ſhadow about 30 ſeconds after nine o'clock in the evening, apparent time at Edinburgh. The middle of the eclipſe, or the time when the Moon's center has traverſed exactly one half of the earth's ſhadow, will be at 26 minutes and 16 ſeconds after 10 o'clock. The ecliptic conjunction, when the Sun and Moon are ſituated in points of the ecliptic exactly oppoſite each other, will take place at 32 minutes and 46 ſeconds after 10 o'clock; and the eclipſe will end at 52 minutes after 11 o'clock in the evening. At 10ʰ..32′..46″, the time of ecliptic conjunction, the Sun's longitude, and the Moon's ecliptic longitude, are exactly 5ˢ..18°..24′..47″; the

the place of the Moon's node 11ˢ..11°..8′; the Moon's horizontal parallax 61′..27″; her horizontal diameter, 33′..30″: the Sun's diameter 31′..54″; the Moon's declination 4°..6′ ſouth; and the digits eclipſed on the Moon's ſouth limb 9°..12′. At the middle of this eclipſe the Moon will be vertical to the ſmall town Cundi, in Africa, ſituated on the river *Zaire*, in *Lower Guinea*, in eaſt longitude 23°, and ſouth latitude 4°..6′. The eclipſe, therefore, will be viſible to Europe, Africa, S. America, the eaſtern half of North America, and the weſtern kingdoms of Aſia.

On the ſame day, about noon, the planet SATURN will be in conjunction with χ *Leonis*, a ſtar of the 4.5 magnitude, in longitude 5ˢ..11°..45′..44″, ſituated under the Lion's belly. The latitude of Saturn being 1ˢ..4′..50″ north, and that of χ *Leonis* 1°..20′..53″ north, the neareſt approach of their centers will be 21′..57″, and Saturn will paſs to the north of the ſtar.

Saturday, Sept. 18.

The Planet MARS will be in quadrature with the Sun at 32 minutes after 11 o'clock in the evening; or the difference of their longitudes will then be three ſigns. Mars will come to the meridian about 59 minutes after 5 o'clock in the morning.

Thurſday, Sept. 23.

About 55 minutes after 6 o'clock in the evening, the *Sun* will enter the ſign *Libra*; and his longitude will then be 6 ſigns.

On the ſame day, at 37 minutes after 10 o'clock in the evening, the Moon will be in conjunction with *Regulus*, or α *Leonis*.

Sunday, Sept. 26.

About 8 o'clock in the evening, the planet VENUS will be in conjunction with 7 *ad* ι *Libræ*, a ſtar of the 4.3 * magnitude, ſituated in the ſouthern ſcale of the balance, in longitude 7ˢ..18°..14′..28″. The latitude of Venus being 2°..14′..34″ ſouth, and that of the ſtar 1°..49′..14″ ſouth, the neareſt diſtance of their centers will be 25′..20″ and Venus will paſs to the ſouth of the ſtar.

Thurſday, Sept. 30.

About 6 o'clock in the morning, the planet MARS will be in conjunction with ν *Gemini*, a ſtar of the 4.5 magnitude, in the foot of Caſtor, ſituated in longitude 3ˢ..0°..40′..30″. The latitude of Mars being 8 ſeconds north, and that of ν *Gemini* 55′..4″ ſouth, the diſtance of their centers, at the time of conjunction, will be 55′..12″, and Mars will paſs to the ſouth of the ſtar.

JEDBURGH, *Auguſt* 22. 1802. } *D. B.*

For the Edinburgh Magazine.

Obſervations on the LATIN POEMS *of Dr* PITCAIRNE.

DURING the preſent age, the Latin Poems of Dr Pitcairne are little read, and, I believe, leſs underſtood. Thoſe who extol him as one of the moſt elegant poets ſince the Auguſtan age, may be worthy patriots,

* When two figures are uſed for marking the luſtre of a ſtar, ſuch as 4.3, in the preſent inſtance, they ſhew that the ſtar is neither of the one magnitude nor the other, but of an intermediate luſtre, approaching nearer to the magnitude of a ſtar denoted by the firſt figure, than to that denoted by the ſecond. The luſtre of 7 *ad* ι *Libræ*, for inſtance, approaches nearer to a ſtar of the fourth than to a ſtar of the third magnitude. Dr Herſchel, in ſome of the late volumes of the London Tranſactions, has illuſtrated a more accurate, though a much more complicated method, of expreſſing the comparative luſtre of the fixed ſtars, by comparing each ſtar with ſeveral that ſurround it. It is preſumed, however, that the old method is ſufficiently accurate for common purpoſes.

triots, but they are poor critics. His poems, however, poſſeſs conſiderable merit; not in their flowing and eaſy numbers, for in that reſpect they are exceeded by the compoſitions of Buchanan, Johnſton, Vida, Sannazarius, Lotichius, Jantolius, and twenty others: their merit lies in their humour and poignant ſatire.

Dr Pitcairne frequently alludes to circumſtances of private hiſtory.—Hence his poems have become obſcure, and, unleſs they meet with a commentator, will in a ſhort time become unintelligible.

P. 1. This Poem is univerſally known by Mr Prior's elegant paraphraſe. What was the Doctor's real meaning, I pretend not to determine. It is remarkable, that Mr Prior has altered ſeveral of the verſes, and, in particular, the firſt diſtich.

The original ſtands thus:

"Dum brevis admitor momentum fallere vitae,
"Et ſomni aeterni non nimis eſſe memor."

But Mr Prior has given us the following lines:

"Dum ſtudeo fungi fallentis munere vitae,
"Adfectoque viam ſedibus Elyſiis."

The *ſomnus aeternus* of Dr Pitcairne might, by candid interpretation, admit of excuſe: Mr Prior, however, judged it expedient to remove the ill ſound of the words.

P. 4. "Ultime Scotorum, atque *ultime Grame*, vale."

This line, diſtinguiſhed for its uncouthneſs and irregularity of meaſure, and perhaps cenſurable for an anticlimax, alludes to the education of the young Marquis of Montroſe among the Whigs. The Doctor foreſaw that the family of Montroſe was irrecoverably loſt to his party.

P. 6. "Qui ſua tot victor Reges in regna reduxit."

This alludes to the pains which Sir George Mackenzie beſtowed in re-eſtabliſhing the ſilly ſtory of our ancient line of kings.

P. 9. "*Venus ad Davidem.*"

This and the following poem reſpect a ſtory which was once current among the vulgar, and which, at length, found a corner in hiſtory; being related by Dr Swift in his memoirs of Captain Creichton.

P. 12. Ad D. R. Sibbaldum.

"Dum procul á Geneva ſe ſummovet inclyta Roma,
"Quod, quam ſit longum, ſcit Cyphianus iter."

Sir Robert Sibbald of Kips, hence called *Cyphianus*, left the Preſbyterians in the reign of James II. and embraced Popery; but returned again to the Preſbyterians before the revolution.

"Diceris Bodiis par ſimiliſque tuis."

Sibbald prepoſterouſly introduced the life of Boyd of Trochrig into his *Prodromus Hiſtoriae Naturalis Scotiae*. Dr Pitcairne ſuppoſed that Boyd was a trifler, becauſe Sibbald had celebrated him. Boyd was, in truth, one of the ableſt men that Scotland produced in the reign of James VI. I ſuſpect that Dr Pitcairne confounded him with his namefake, Zachary Boyd, the moſt wretched of poetaſters.

"Dumque tot inculti, queis horret Scotia, montes
"Exiles fundent ſqualidulaſque roſas."

Sibbald imagined that he had diſcovered a ſingular ſort of briar-roſe among the Pentland-hills near his eſtate of Kips. This he dignified with the name of *Roſa Kippiana*.

P. 16. "*Ad Greppam.*"

This alludes to a ſubterraneous tavern, which Dr Pitcairne and his jovial aſſociates frequented. He called it the *Greping-Office*, from the gueſts being obliged to *grope* their way in the dark. He here deifies the landlady, and ſuppoſes her elevated to the ſtate of Proſerpine.

P. 21.

P. 21. This is a party-poem, founded on the fable of the frogs demanding a king. That he might have the pleaſure of comparing K. William to the ſtork, he ſcruples not to compare James II. to *King Log*. Neither the friends nor the enemies of James will admit the reſemblance.

P. 24. "Quam bene pro Jano veniſſet Junius alter!"

The evils occaſioned by the death of Charles I. were to be redreſſed by the birth of the Pretender. The alluſions to the 10th *of June* are numerous in Pitcairne's poems; but not diverſified with much art.

P. 27. "*Ad advenas.*"

The general ſcope of this poem is to ſatyrize the preſbyterian clergy of Edinburgh.

"Protinus Aegidii triplicem te confer in aedem,
"Tres ubi Cyclopes fanda nefanda boant, &c."

And, to deſcribe the different taverns in Edinburgh, he ſeems to adviſe his pupil to keep at a diſtance from the former, and to frequent the latter.

"Nunc te clavigeri delectent pocula Stili."

The tavern kept by Steel, at the ſign of the *Croſs Keys*.

After having run over the different taverns, and deſcribed the landlords and the landladies, he expatiates on his favourite *Greppa*.

P. 30. "*Gallica hoſpitia.*"

He ſpeaks of a tavern where it was not ſafe to drink the Pretender's health under the title of *the French King's gueſt*.

P. 33. "In Ædes Joan. Paterſoni."

This ſeems the leaſt ſpirited epigram in the whole collection. It had the fortune to be recorded in gold letters on the houſe itſelf, near the foot of the Canongate, almoſt oppoſite to Queenſberry-houſe. It imports, that John Paterſon built that houſe in the year in which he carried the prize of archery; and that his forefathers had gained that prize *nine times*. What the Doctor meant as a jeſt, Paterſon probably believed to be a ſerious panegyric.

P. 69. "*Die XXV. Decembris.*"

This poem might undeceive thoſe who repreſent Dr Pitcairne as an unbeliever, were it not for an unlucky habit which ſome people have of miſtaking their friends for their enemies, Dr Pitcairne, in the overflowing levity of wit, ſometimes made raſh and indecent alluſions to ſcripture. Hence he was called a *Deiſt*. The next man who repeated his words, called him an *Atheiſt*.

P. 70. "*Ad Carolum XII. Sueciorum Regem.*"

This epigram contains a wiſh, that the King of Sweden may marry Louiſa, the daughter of James II. She is termed *Lodoix Gallo-Britanna*, in alluſion to her being the daughter of James II. and born in France.

Ibid. I imagine the *Vaticinium* to imply, that the ſame lady will be married to Philip V. of Spain.

P. 73. *Ad Phoebum.*

This is an invective againſt the framers of the union of the two kingdoms.

P. 79. "Barbariem Hibernam nunc pudet eſſe ſuum."

A moſt illiberal cenſure of a gallant nation; becauſe M'Cartney, an Iriſhman, was reported to have murdered the Duke of Hamilton.

History of CLOCK *and* WATCH-MAKING, *both* THEORETICAL *and* PRACTICAL, *ſince the earlieſt Method of dividing the Day, to the End of the Eighteenth Century.—By I. H. Moritz Poppe.*

THE author of this work having publiſhed, in 1797, An Eſſay toward a Hiſtory of the Origin and Progreſs of Clock and Watch-making;

ing; it met with ſuch a favourable reception, that he has ſince been induced to improve and enlarge it. He acknowledges the obligations he is under to profeſſors Kaſtner and Beckmann, who aſſiſted him with their advice and information; and who, on account of their learning and extenſive reading, were able to ſupply him with much uſeful information. The whole work is divided into ten chapters.

I. *The eldeſt method of dividing the Day, and the invention of Sun-dials.*

The period when ſun-dials were invented is as little known as the country where, and the perſon by whom. The author, however, has collected from the oldeſt authors what is to be found on the ſubject, and examined it with critical accuracy. The earlieſt account of inſtruments deſtined to mark the lapſe of time by the ſun's ſhadow is to be found in the Bible and in Homer. A ſun-dial conſtructed according to the deſcription of Vitruvius was found in the year 1741, among the ruins of a villa on the Tuſculan hill at Rome. A ſun-dial of the ſame kind is ſtill to be ſeen at Athens, ſtanding on the ſummit of a rock, to the right of an edifice built by Thraſyllus.

II. *Uſe of Sun-dials, and the Diviſion of the Day into Hours, among different ancient Nations. Gradual Improvement of the Art of conſtructing and uſing them, to the preſent Period.*

The Indians, Siameſe, Tartars, Perſians, Chaldeans, Egyptians, and Chineſe, divided the day into ſixty hours, and each hour into ſixty minutes, &c. Theſe people even employed a gnomon for the purpoſe of placing their temples according to the principal quarters of the globe. We know from hiſtory that the Chineſe made uſe of gnomons twelve or fifteen centuries, perhaps, before the birth of Chriſt. The old geographers, by examining the length of the ſhadows of gnomons of equal height, determined the latitude of places, and the obliquity of the ecliptic. Beroſus brought to Greece from Aſia the diviſion of the day into twelve hours; and the firſt ſun-dial. Anaximander, about ſix centuries before Chriſt, made an improvement in ſun-dials, as did alſo Anaximenes. Eudoxus, four centuries before Chriſt, conſtructed a ſtill more perfect ſun-dial, under the name of *arachne*. Apollonius of Perga, about a century before Chriſt, invented the *pharetra*. Patroclus found out the *pelekinon*, Dionyſiodorus the ſun-dial in the form of a cone, Cleanthes the hemiſphere or *ſcapha*, Parmenio the *proſtapiſtorumena*, Theodoſius and Andreas the *proſpanklima*. Vitruvius makes mention of three other ſun-dials; *gonarcha*, *engenaton*, and *antiboreum*, without deſcribing them or naming the inventors. The author deſcribes all theſe ſun-dials with as much preciſion as the accounts of them remaining will allow, and with literary and technical accuracy. There were public ſun-dials both at Athens and Sparta. Eratoſthenes and Archimedes employed dials very accurately divided for aſtronomical purpoſes; and all the cities of Greece of any conſideration, ſoon had public inſtruments of this kind. Ring-dials ſoon began alſo to be uſed. A dial of this kind was ſuſpended in the large ſhip of Hiero; but the Grecian navigators, for meaſuring the ſtate of the ſun, the time of the day, and the ſtars above the horizon, employed rather the hodometer deſcribed by Vitruvius, which ſeems to have furniſhed the firſt hint for our meaſurers of time, conſtructed with wheel-work. It was very late before the Romans had real ſun-dials. They employed in their ſtead obeliſks, to which good gnomons were applied. The largeſt of all the gnomons of modern times, was that of

of Ulug Beigh, erected at Conſtantinople in the 15th century, which was 183 feet in height. The Bononian obeliſk, 83 feet high, erected by Caſſini, that of Paris, and the one which Pope Clement XI. cauſed to be conſtructed, are alſo celebrated. In the ancient gnomons, the hours were indicated by the ſhadow of a ſtyle; in the modern ones, the ſame thing is done by the ſun's rays paſſing through a hole. The Greeks and Romans employed perſons of both ſexes to announce to them the hours as indicated by the public gnomons. Trimalchio cauſed the hours to be announced to him by a trumpeter. This was afterward cuſtomary at the temples. It is not known, however, when portable ſun-dials came into uſe. Some of theſe inſtruments, after being buried more than 1500 years, were found between 1730 and 1740 in the territories of Rome; of theſe remains of antiquity the author gives a deſcription. That Purbach, an aſtronomer of Vienna, introduced ſun-dials into Germany, about 300 years ago is not probable, as the Germans, no doubt, obtained them by their intercourſe with the Romans. In the 16th century, artiſts took great pains to conſtruct ſun-dials in a great many ingenious ways; about the ſame period lunar and aſtral dials were invented. There is a ſun-dial at Beſançon which is ſeen only when the ſun ſhines. This is alſo deſcribed, as well as the dial below the roof of the council-houſe at Ingoldſtadt. Another at Alençon, ſtill more ingenious, is connected with the wheel-work, and indicates true and mean time. In the muſeum at Gottingen, there is a collection of ſun-dials, and other works of art of a ſimilar kind, preſerved in a box.

III. *Oldeſt Method of dividing the Night. Invention of Water-clocks and Sand-glaſſes, and the progreſſive Improvement of them, to the preſent time.*

The circumſtance of ſun-dials being of no uſe in the night time, and during cloudy weather, gave occaſion to the invention and improvement of water clocks; traces of which may be found amongſt the oldeſt nations, the Chaldeans and Egyptians. They were in uſe alſo at an early period among the Chineſe. They were employed by the Egyptian aſtronomers for meaſuring the diameter of the ſun. In their firſt ſtate they were called *clepſydræ*, becauſe the water iſſued from them drop by drop. The defect, in regard to the inequality in the efflux was at firſt remedied by the ſmall ſtick of the Indians having a hole bored in it, and which floats ſome time on the water, but which after a certain period, diſcovered by repeated trial, becomes immerſed. It was afterward contrived to keep the water clock always full, by ſuffering the ſame quantity of water to run in as that which flowed out, that equal portions of time might be indicated by an equal fall. A funnel, or inverted pyramid was then employed, in which the water deſcended in unequal parts, but through equal degrees marked out on a ſcale. In the courſe of time the knowledge of aſtronomy was applied to theſe clocks, and ſome were conſtructed in a very ingenious manner; of this kind was the *anaphoricum*, which the author deſcribes: alſo the retrograding clock, and winter water-clock. Plato brought the firſt water-clock to Greece. The firſt that ever appeared at Rome, was ſhown by Scipio Naſica, about the year 157 before Chriſt: but ſoon after theſe clocks were common, not only at Rome, but in other towns of the Roman empire. When Julius Ceſar invaded Britain, he found that the inhabitants had water-clocks. In general, they were more prized than ſun-dials.

Athenæus

Athenæus conſtructed a clock which indicated the hours by the hiſſing noiſe of the air forced through a narrow hole by the preſſure of the water. Together with public ſun-dials, public water-clocks were alſo ſoon introduced. Theſe were eſtabliſhed even in the palaces of the great. That the hours as announced by theſe water-clocks may be more eaſily made known to the public, the Turks have criers poſted on high towers—and the Chineſe, perſons who ſtrike on large bells. The Japanneſe employ burning matches to indicate the time, and announce the hours in the ſame manner as the Chineſe. The uſe which Hipparchus and Ptolemy made of water-clocks contributed to their improvement; they were much improved by Hero, but during the next ſeven centuries nothing was done in this reſpect. The clocks of Boethius, that which Harun al-Raſchid ſent as a preſent to Charlemagne, and that of the philoſopher Leo of Conſtantinople, were much celebrated, though the invention of clocks with wheel-work rendered water-clocks unneceſſary. The latter, however, continued ſome time after in uſe; and about the year 1660, water-clocks in the form of a drum, which are thoſe called properly at preſent water-clocks, were invented, it is probable, in Italy, but rather for curioſity than for real uſe. The obſervation that the water ſoon evaporated, may have given occaſion to ſand being uſed in ſuch clocks inſtead of water. The period when this change was made is not known. There is reaſon only to conjecture that the Egyptians and Chaldeans had hour glaſſes. In the Monachal laws the word *klepsammedia* occurs only in writings of the eighth century; and it was not till a much later period that attempts were made to conſtruct hour-glaſſes in an elegant and ingenious manner. Many of them are deſcribed by Francis de Lanis, as well as by Schott and Ozanam. Rivault employed ſuch ſand-glaſſes for aſtronomical obſervations; and likewiſe Tycho Brahe, who uſed alſo clocks conſtructed with quick-ſilver.

IV. *Ingenious Water-clocks and other Machines, the moving principle of which was different from that of our common clocks that go by Wheel-work.*

Under this head the author ſpeaks of the machine which King Gonebaud received as a preſent from Theodoric King of the Goths. He gives alſo a deſcription of the beforementioned clock ſent by Harun al-Raſchid to Charlemagne. At that period the eaſtern princes preſented clocks to the weſtern; at preſent this mode is reverſed. This chapter contains alſo a deſcription of ſome other ingenious clocks from Schott, Kircher, Ozanam, Martinelli and De Lanis; alſo Perrault's pendulum-clock, which was moved by water, and a Chineſe one which Y-Hang cauſed to be conſtructed.

V. *The Invention of Clocks moved by Wheels and Weights, and their progreſſive Improvement, till the middle of the 17th Century.*

The invention of clocks moved by wheels and weights, as well as the period of invention, is totally unknown. The author, however, has collected the reſearches of learned men on this ſubject, and refutes the opinion of thoſe who make the invention to be not older than the fourteenth century. The invention, however, was not very great, as the more perfect water-clocks were before that period furniſhed with wheels, ſo that the only improvement was the ſubſtitution of a ſolid body to act as a moving weight inſtead of water. The principal point was to produce uniformity in the action of theſe weights; and in this reſpect the firſt clocks moved by weights were deficient till the

the time of Huyghens. It is not therefore to be wondered at, that the application of weights to clocks as a moving power ſhould excite ſo little attention as to be ſcarcely thought worth notice by cotemporary writers; water and ſand were indeed more convenient than a ſolid weight, which requires too much room for its motion. The author is of opinion that the origin of clocks with weights is as old as the eleventh century, and adduces very probable grounds in ſupport of it; but it is not properly aſcertained, whether the inventor was an European, or a Saracen. The oldeſt complete clock moved by weights, of which there is any certain teſtimony, is that ſent by the Sultan of Egypt in the year 1232, to the Emperor Frederic II. the value of which was at that time eſtimated at 5000 ducats. In the thirteenth century, many of the church ſteeples in Italy were furniſhed with clocks moved by weights that ſtruck the hours. About the ſame time the well-known clock-houſe at Weſtminſter-hall was furniſhed with a clock that ſtruck the hours; the expence of which was defrayed by a fine impoſed on one of the judges. The clock moved by weights, of the abbot Richard of Wallingford, which by many has been conſidered as the oldeſt, was conſtructed in the fourteenth century. In the year 1394, Padua obtained the firſt clock, ſuppoſed to have been conſtructed by the celebrated philoſopher, phyſician, aſtronomer, and mechaniſt, James Dondi. That ſuch clocks might be introduced into England, Richard III. gave a patent to three Netherlanders, in the year 1368. Courtrai in France, had a clock that ſtruck the hours ſo early as the year 1332; it was carried away in that year by Philip the Bold of Burgundy, and conveyed to Dijon, where it is ſtill to be ſeen. The firſt large clock at Paris was erected in 1364, by a German artiſt, Henry von Wick, who received daily ſix French ſous, together with free lodging in the tower of the Palais, to which the clock was removed in 1370. Bologna obtained the firſt public clock in 1356; Pavia in 1402; Breſlaw, by Schwelbelin, in 1368; Straſburg, in 1370; Augſburg, in 1398; Nuremberg, in 1462; and Venice, in 1497. The firſt clocks were expenſive, and many cities, deſirous of having ſuch machines, were not able to raiſe money to purchaſe them. In the year 1523, the fines levied from the ſtudents at Oxford, were employed to defray the expence of the clock erected on the church of St Mary. Private individuals, however, about this time, began to obtain clocks. The firſt inſtance of a clock with weights being employed for aſtronomical purpoſes occurs in 1484, when Walther, as he ſays, with a well-regulated clock, made an obſervation of Mercury. Tycho had three of theſe clocks, which ſhowed minutes and ſeconds; he found, however, that they were expoſed to variations from the influence of the atmoſphere and wind; on which account he cauſed to be conſtructed a quickſilver clock, in which diſtilled quickſilver, inſtead of ſand and water, ſhowed minutes and ſeconds. To produce an uniform fall, ſo much quickſilver dropped from another veſſel into the hour-veſſel, as was ſufficient to keep it always at the ſame height. As the ſtudy of aſtronomy required more accurate meaſures of time, we are indebted to that ſcience for the improvement of theſe inſtruments, the conſtruction of which does ſo much honour to the human genius.

VI. *Invention of Watches, and Table-Clocks.*

Hele of Nurnberg is generally conſidered as the inventor of watches or ſpring clocks, as they ought properly to be called; the firſt of which he is ſaid to have conſtructed in the year 1500.

1500. According to others, Halbrecht of Straſburg was the inventor, but his firſt clock was conſtructed in 1520, and conſequently twenty years later than Hele; who, it is certain, made ſmall ſpring clocks or watches, ſo early as 1500. Nurnberg and Augſburg were the firſt cities of Germany in which watches were made. Hele's watches not only indicated the hours, but ſtruck them alſo. Andrew Heinlein, who trod in Hele's footſteps, made ſmall clocks in the ſmelling-balls which were uſed in his time. In the architectural office at Augſburg, there is a watch above 200 years old, which ſtrikes the hours: it is contained in a cryſtal caſe, and was made by Buſchman. There were ſtriking watches in France, in the time of Louis XI. The oldeſt watch in England, that goes ſtill pretty well, is of the year 1540, and is preſerved in the palace of Hampton-court.

VII. *Invention of the Fusee, Pendulum, and ſpiral Spring.*

The fuſee was in all probability invented in England, about the end of the ſixteenth century, by whom is not known, and was thence introduced into Germany. It was examined geometrically by Varignon and de la Hire, in order to determine the moſt advantageous form; which, however, does not always avail, on account of the inequality of the ſpring, and therefore advantage is taken of other mechanical means; of this kind is the balance, by means of which the power of the ſpring can be adjuſted, and which undoubtedly was invented in Swiſſerland about the beginning of the eighteenth century. In the firſt watches with fuſees, the diameter was ſmall, and the box large and broad. The catgut, by which it was wound up, paſſed eight or nine times around the fuſee. This made the watch clumſy and ill-ſhaped. The catgut, however, was ſoon exchanged for a chain, which conſiſts of ſmall plates of ſteel united together with great labour. In the middle of the ſeventeenth century, Huyghens invented a better method of regulating the movement of clocks. In the year 1657, he applied the pendulum as a regulator to large clocks moved by weights; and, ſome years after, recommended the balance-ſpring for watches. Before that period ſome had uſed, inſtead of the ſpoon-formed balance, one in the form of a ring, or employed a ſmall fly wheel; and Hautefeuille uſed at firſt a ſwine's briſtle, and then a weak, ſtraight, ſteel ſpring, for regulating the balance. In the year 1674, Huyghens cauſed a watch with a ſpiral balance ſpring to be conſtructed by Turet at Paris. Dr Hook entered into a diſpute with Huyghens in regard to this invention, and proved that he had invented ſuch a watch for Charles II. which had the inſcription "Robert Hook, *invenit* 1658, Tompion *fecit* 1675;" and that he had ſolicited a patent for ſuch watches in 1660, but did not obtain it till 1675.

(To be continued.)

For the Edinburgh Magazine.

Remarks on the Love *of* Fame.

The love of Fame, howe'er conceal'd by art,
Reigns more or leſs, and glows in every heart.

THE love of fame is one of the moſt general and ſtimulating deſires in the human heart. It is alſo among the number of thoſe principles, concerning the nature of which very different opinions have been formed,

formed, in ſpeculation; and in the direction of which, very dangerous extremes have been purſued, in action. By ſome, it has been repreſented, as a diſtemper of the ſoul;—a vicious weakneſs, which debaſed the dignity, and ſtained the virtue of a rational and immortal nature. By others, it has been extolled as a moſt worthy and laudable incitement to exertion; as the nobleſt aim, and beſt reward of benevolent and heroic deeds. By ſome, it has been ſo little regarded, as a motive to action, that every deſire of excellence, every principle of induſtry, every emotion of honour has been driven from their minds; and their lives, dragged out in Stoical apathy, or monaſtic indolence, have neither been honourable to themſelves, nor uſeful to men. By others, it has been ſo extravagantly prized, that it has engroſſed all their thoughts, and prompted all their movements: by a blind and frantic paſſion for its attainment, they have been hurried into all the ridiculous pretenſions of vanity, affectation, and pride; into all the treacherous machinations of hypocriſy, detraction, and envy; into all the horrid enormities of ambition, deva[illegible]ation, and murder!

The nature and origin of this powerful principle, might form a very intereſting ſubject of ſpeculation for the metaphyſician. Its general utility, and extenſive influence on ſociety, might juſtly claim the attention of the politician. While its due regulation, and ſubſerviency to virtue, might profitably employ the pen of the moraliſt. A few ſlight remarks on the love of fame, in each of theſe departments, will occupy the remaining part of this Eſſay.

1. With reſpect to the origin of this deſire, philoſophers have adopted different opinions. By the greater part it has been claſſed among thoſe principles of the human mind, whoſe exiſtence only can be aſcertained; but whoſe origin and formation are yet beyond the ſcrutiny of the intellectual eye; among thoſe ultimate facts, the analyſis of which has puzzled the underſtanding, defied the penetration, and bewildered the fancy of the moſt ingenious inquirers. This is no doubt the ſureſt, and perhaps the trueſt deciſion. It is ſufficient, at leaſt, for all thoſe purpoſes of education, and of moral inſtruction, to which an acquaintance with the human mind may be rendered ſubſervient. The ſtrong deſire which we feel for the acquiſition of fame, and the delight which we derive from the poſſeſſion of it, have been deduced by Dr Hartley, with a conſiderable degree of ingenuity, from the ſenſible pleaſures; which he conſiders as alone entitled to the appellation of ſimple and original; and from which he deduces, in the ſame manner, all the other intellectual enjoyments. According to this theory, we might be able to form an idea how the love of reputation is generated; and to diſcover in what manner, by means of new aſſociations, the mere acquiſition of a name, abſtracted from any perceptible, immediate enjoyment, becomes at length a ſource of pleaſure, and an object of deſire. Without adopting, however, any hypotheſis on the preciſe origin of this principle, we may trace the proceſs of its formation in the following manner. A human being, placed in this ſyſtem of things, would ſoon acquire a power of diſtinguiſhing thoſe objects, which afforded him pleaſure, from thoſe which occaſioned pain. From the conſtitution of his nature, he would ſoon learn alſo, by inſtinct, or reflection, to attach himſelf to thoſe which were pleaſurable, (and which conſequently contributed to his happineſs;) and to avoid thoſe, which were of an oppoſite tendency, and which he found inimical to his chief deſire. He would ſoon diſcover, that a great part of theſe pleaſures proceeded from the

the communications of his fellow-creatures; that his happineſs, in ſhort, depended conſiderably upon them. He would ſoon perceive alſo, that, in order to engage them to contribute to his ſatisfaction and convenience, it was neceſſary to ſecure their eſteem and good-will. He would ſoon be perſuaded, that celebrity, or fame, was a fruitful ſource of advantages, and abſolutely neceſſary for his ſafety and felicity. He would at firſt love and purſue it, as a mean of enjoyment; and by frequent impreſſion, and the influence of aſſociation, it would at length be converted into an end; and become itſelf a deſireable poſſeſſion. The love of fame then would appear to be entirely reſolvable into that more general principle,—ſelf-love;—a principle, inherent in our conſtitution, conſiſtent with our reaſon, and eſſential to our exiſtence.

Thus, the love of fame is a rational deſire. It greatly reſembles the ſocial principle, and ſeems intimately connected with it. It is equally becoming, and equally natural, in a human being; and, perhaps, it may be equally beneficial to ſociety at large.

Though the general and primary ſtate of the affection, of which we are now treating, may be agreeable to the preceding repreſentation; yet it ſhould be obſerved, that there are a great variety of modifications, both in nature and degree, which the different habitudes and relations of individuals impreſs upon it; and which are productive of all thoſe diverſities of direction, and peculiarities of operation, which the principle exhibits in life. Theſe it would be endleſs to enumerate, and impoſſible to explain.

2. It cannot admit of a doubt, that this love of praiſe has been implanted in the mind of man, for the beſt and wiſeſt purpoſes; and it is impoſſible to deny, that it has actually prompted to the execution of plans the moſt important to communities. It has no doubt been alſo hurtful. It has often dragged into its ſervices, with a ſelfiſh graſp, every faculty of the mind; checked the growth of more generous feelings; and raiſed the bubble of human vanity, in oppoſition to every duty, human and divine. It has often "let looſe the dogs of war;" ſpread ruin and deſolation far and wide; transformed this abode of human beings into a pandemonium, and converted the face of things into a picture of hell.

This diabolical perverſion of the principle is boldly depicted in the following animated apoſtrophe of Mr Cowper:

Ye monarchs, whom the lure of honour draws;
Who write, in blood, the merits of your cauſe;
Who ſtrike the blow, then plead your own defence,
(Glory your aim, but juſtice your pretence:—)
Behold, in Ætna's emblematic fires,
The miſchiefs your ambitious pride inſpires!
The trumpet ſounds, your legions ſwarm abroad;
Through the ripe harveſts lies their deſtin'd road;
At every ſtep, beneath their feet they tread
The life of multitudes—a nation's bread!
Earth ſeems a garden—in its loveliеſt dreſs,
Before them; and behind—a wilderneſs.
Famine, and Peſtilence, her firſt-born ſon,
Attend, to finiſh what the ſword begun;
And echoing praiſes, (ſuch as fiends might earn,
And folly pays,) reſound at your return.

A calm ſucceeds; but Plenty, with her train
Of heart-felt joys, returns not ſoon again:
And years of pining indigence muſt ſhow,
What ſcourges are the gods that rule below.

But this is evidently an abuſe; and what principle of our nature has not been abuſed? Has not the principle of reſentment become at times a fire-brand of fury? Have not the principles of credulity and imitation been carried to a moſt hurtful and alarming exceſs? Has not ſelf-love itſelf, too often degenerated into the moſt ſordid and pernicious ſelfiſhneſs? The love of fame, conſidered as an affection inherent in our nature, is both laudable and uſeful; and, when it is employed only as a ſpur to action; when it does not engroſs the chief attention of the individual, nor become the ſole object of his exertions; when it is employed only in ſubordination to a principle of veneration for the Great Being who beſtowed it, and in conjunction with a benevolent concern for the happineſs of ſentient creatures;—it may then exiſt in union with virtue, as well as contribute to general utility.

3. But it was propoſed to make ſome remarks, particularly upon the proper objects, and due regulation of the principle, of which we are treating.

In an inquiry into the proper objects of the love of fame, the diſtinction, which has been made by the ancient Stoics, demands our notice. By theſe philoſophers, two kinds of reputation are mentioned; the applauſe of the many, which they reckoned of no eſtimation; and the approbation of good and wiſe men, for the attainment of which, they thought every exertion ſhould be made *. Let us conſider each of theſe. We ſhall begin with the laſt, —the approbation of good and wiſe men. It muſt be allowed, with the Stoic moraliſts, that this is an object which it is reaſonable and right that every man ſhould deſire. It can be gained only by virtuous and prudent conduct; and if the deſire of gaining it ſtimulate to ſuch a deportment, it muſt be regarded as the handmaid of virtue. But there is a diſtinction, which it is of the moſt eſſential importance to obſerve, in eſtimating the moral rectitude of human conduct, in the purſuit of fame, even of this deſcription. We muſt diſtinguiſh between "the deſire of the approbation of good men," and the performing even of virtuous actions, from no other principle than the love of that approbation. The former is right; the latter is wrong. The former indicates a generous mind; the latter a ſelfiſh heart. The only proper motive to virtuous conduct is the ſenſe of duty; and of this ſenſe of duty the proper end is the happineſs of man; and the proper principle is the command of God. This is the teſt of virtue and benevolence. We all know, that actions, apparently the ſame, and tending to the ſame ends, may yet proceed from very different intentions; and it is univerſally allowed, that the pretenſions of every action muſt be appreciated according to the nature of the principle which gave it birth. Is any action performed with a premeditated purpoſe to attain the favour of the mighty? It is a child of ambition. Is it to allure the wealth of the world? It is an

* The firſt, by later writers is termed *Gloria*, the ſecond, *Claritas*. "Gloria, "(ſays Seneca,) Gloria multorum judiciis conſtat; claritas, honorum." And he "adds, "Sed claritas poteſt unius boni viri judicio eſſe contenta."

an impulſe of avarice. Is it to ſecure the praiſes of men? It is the offspring of vanity. Is it to benefit the human race, and honour the Being who formed us? It is the fruit of benevolence and piety; it is truly rational, laudable, and meritorious.

If theſe obſervations be well founded, it will follow, that even the approbation of good men muſt be deſired and purſued, with ſome reſtrictions. The fame which they beſtow on a virtuous conduct, may be fairly ſought and chearfully accepted, as the gift of a gracious providence; as an atteſtation to the dictates of conſcience; as an encouragement to perſevere in what is right, and as "an earneſt of better things to come." But it ſhould never be coveted as the only, or as the principal reward of virtue; or as the end which ſhould regulate and animate noble exertions. To aſpire after the applauſe of the multitude, argues a weakneſs of ſoul; and often leads its votary to folly and to crimes. Open and ſteady virtue can ſcarcely be practiſed, in the preſent ſtate of ſociety, without incurring the odium of the vicious. The friend of liberty neceſſarily diſpleaſes the oppreſſor; the man of benevolence is cenſured by the ſelfiſh miſer; the man of courage offends the coward; the man of induſtry is envied by the ſluggard; the man of genius is calumniated by the ſtupid and illiterate. "Envy and detraction," ſays Dr Percival, "are the price "which muſt be paid for præ-emi-"nence in virtue." "Woe unto "you," ſay the Scriptures of truth, "when *all* men ſhall ſpeak well of "you;" for ſuch can only be hypocrites, ſycophants, or debauchees. Like Cataline, they muſt learn, "Cum triſtibus ſevere, cum remiſſis "jucunde, cum ſenibus graviter cum "juventute comiter vivere." They muſt learn, in a word, to accommodate themſelves to the whims and the vices of all around them *. This circumſtance is finely illuſtrated in the character of Wharton, as drawn by Mr Pope:

Wharton! the ſcorn and wonder of our days,
Whoſe ruling paſſion was the luſt of praiſe;
Born with whate'er ſhould win it from the wiſe,
Women and fools muſt like him, or he dies.
Tho' wond'ring ſenates hung on all he ſpoke,
The club muſt hail him maſter of the joke.
Shall parts ſo various aim at nothing new?
He'll ſhine a Tully and a Wilmot too;
Then turns repentant, and his God adores
With the ſame ſpirit that he drinks and whores;
Enough, if all around him but admire,
And now the punk applaud, and now the friar.
Thus, with each gift of nature, and of art,
And wanting nothing but an honeſt heart;
Grown all to all, from no one vice exempt,
And moſt contemptible, to ſhun contempt.
His paſſion ſtill to covet general praiſe;
His life, to forfeit it a thouſand ways.
He dies, ſad outcaſt of each church and ſtate;
And, harder ſtill, flagitious, yet not great!
Aſk you, why Wharton broke thro' ev'ry rule?
'Twas all for fear the knaves ſhould call him fool.

Indeed

* Vide Percival's Father's Inſtructions.

Indeed the man who can be either greatly elated by the applauſe of an indiſcriminating multitude, or greatly depreſſed by their equally indiſcriminating reproach, deſerves to be claſſed among the tribe of knaves or of fools*. But not only is the thirſt of *univerſal* fame pernicious in its influence on the conduct; it is alſo (as will appear upon a very little reflection,) a moſt paltry matter; neither worth the ſeeking, nor the poſſeſſing. Men are, in general, unqualified to judge of the nature and value of actions. Many are, in a great meaſure, incapable of diſtinguiſhing fairly between one that is noble and one that is mean; between one that is truly virtuous, and one that is ſo only in appearance. The multitude miſtake folly for wiſdom; flattery for truth: prefer impudence to modeſty; jeſt to argument; vice, in ſhort, to virtue. Many, either inadvertently and thoughtleſsly overlook the claims of the pureſt conduct; or ignorantly impute it to ungenerous motives. Many artfully and intentionally miſrepreſent its nature; and put upon every ſtep the moſt unfavourable conſtruction. All are unable to eſtimate the ſecret virtues of the heart. Theſe muſt ever bloſſom unſeen, ever waſte their fragrance unperceived. Who then would anxiouſly toil for the praiſe of thoſe beings, who can neither appreciate the merit of external actions, nor behold the latent goodneſs of the heart? What ſpirit, truly ennobled by a virtuous piety, and accuſtomed to regard the ſupreme Being as the ſpectator of its moſt ſecret thoughts and actions, would deign to court that proſtituted applauſe, which every deſigning hypocrite, every Phariſaical devotee, every wheedling villain, can more ſucceſsfully obtain? But even though the applauſe of the many were in itſelf both harmleſs and profitable; yet it is a prize ſo diſtracting in the purſuit, ſo precarious in the poſſeſſion, and ſo unſatisfying often in the enjoyment, that no wiſe man would be willing to reſt any conſiderable part of his happineſs upon the acquiſition of it. An eager purſuit after fame is attended with conſtant anxiety and perturbation of mind. The tranquillity of the ſoul is diſturbed, the connection and regularity of the thoughts are broken; the mind is perpetually on the ſtretch after ſome chimerical project:—ſome imaginary happineſs, which, even though obtained, never ſatisfies; never communicates any rational pleaſure, any pure enjoyment.

> One ſelf-approving hour, whole years outweighs
> Of ſtupid ſtarers, and of loud huzzas.

But even to thoſe who can be "raviſhed with the whiſtlings of a name," who can be ſatisfied "with a fancied life in others' breath," the duration of their pleaſure is often ſhort and tranſitory. The happineſs of the lover of praiſe depends almoſt entirely upon the pleaſure, upon the whim of others. By a flight of their fancy, the darling object of his wiſhes may be ſnatched, in all its bloom, from his greedy graſp, ere he can once taſte its ſweets, or even ſurvey all its beauties.—For he

> Who builds his hope in th' air of men's fair looks,
> Lives like a drunken ſailor on a maſt,
> Ready, with every nod, to tumble down
> Into the fatal bowels of the deep.

To-day, he may be the favourite of his ſovereign, to-morrow the outcaſt of ſociety. To-day, he may ſtand in the preſence of princes; to-

* Falſus honor juvat, et mendax infamia terret,—
Quem, niſi mendacem, et mendoſum?

to-morrow, he may be ranked with the beggar on the dung-hill.

"To-day," ſays Wolſey,—"to-day, he puts forth

The tender leaves of hope; to-morrow bloſſoms,
And bears his bluſhing honours thick upon him;
The third day comes a froſt, a killing froſt;
And when he thinks, good eaſy man! full ſurely,
His greatneſs is a-ripening, nips his ſhoot,
And then he falls as I do.

I feel that I cannot conclude theſe obſervations better, than by quoting the words of two eminent writers, who have made ſome remarks on this ſubject. The ſentiments, which I wiſhed to propoſe, are expreſſed by them in an elegant manner; and as I have found their language, I ſhall not pretend to ſubſtitute any other. "He "who governs by reaſon," ſays Dr Percival, "this animating principle "of action, (the love of fame;) who "uniformly aims at moral rectitude "in his conduct; who ſuffers no po-"pular praiſe, or vulgar opinion, to "elate, or to miſlead him; and who "is undepreſſed by the cenſures of "intereſted, or incompetent judges, "will command the eſteem of thoſe, "whoſe ſuffrages alone are fame; "will be honoured and revered by "poſterity, and will obtain the fa-"vour of God himſelf; the omniſci-"ent obſerver, and ſovereign reward-"er of merit."

"The love of reputation," ſays Dr Jortin, "when directed by reaſon, "is allowable; but reaſon muſt go-"vern, and not be governed. Our "love of it muſt be moderate; we "muſt love it as a thing which, tho' "pleaſant and profitable, is precari-"ous; attended with ſome inconve-"niences, not eaſily kept, ſometimes "undeſervedly loſt, and laſtly, of no "uſe to us beyond the grave. We, "whoſe continuance here is ſo ſhort, "are ſcarcely born for this world; "or for any thing that this world "can beſtow. Our reputation we "can enjoy no longer, than whilſt "we live. A reputation after death, "if it only begins then, is of ſmall va-"lue, it is like a favourable wind after "a ſhipwreck. When we go hence, "what good can ariſe to our own per-"ſons from it? Here we muſt leave "it; and here it will remain and ſur-"vive, for a greater or leſſer num-"ber of years, as time and chance "will determine! Good actions "are a treaſure, which we can carry "hence with us. If we are ſecure "of theſe, it is no matter if the world "be negligent of us, and we paſs "our days unregarded, and poſteri-"ty know not that we ever had a "being. Our virtues are immortal, "and true honour will be their recom-"penſe—an honour which we ſhall "receive from God, from holy an-"gels, and from juſt men made per-"fect, and which ſhall continue to all "eternity."

EDINBURGH, *Aug. 5th* 1802. } *J. B.*

For the Edinburgh Magazine.

Remarks on the Different SYSTEMS *of the* UNIVERSE.

IN the earlier ages of ſociety, when men have not emerged from barbariſm to refinement, their attention is ſolely directed to thoſe objects with which they are more immediately connected. To procure the neceſſaries of life, to provide a ſhelter from the fury of the elements, and to reſiſt the inroads of their enemies, conſtitute the whole of their labour and

and care. But when distinctions in society begin to take place, and when the necessaries of life can be procured with convenience and ease, the more striking appearances of nature arrest the attention: and man is impelled by an irresistible curiosity to discover her operations, and investigate their cause. It is extremely probable, that the heavenly bodies would attract their notice in preference to every other object with which they were surrounded. The Sun, which warmed them by day, and brought to maturity the fruits of the earth: the Moon, which guided them by night, and regulated by her revolutions their public feasts and assemblies, would undoubtedly be the chief subjects of their investigation; and that same principle which impelled men in the ruder ages of the world to bend their knees to the luminaries of heaven, would impell them also to observe with assiduity and attention, every circumstance that was connected with the objects of their regard.

But notwithstanding the predilection of our forefathers for the study of astronomy, we are by no means to suppose, that their progress would be proportional to the time, which they spent, or to the intensity of their application. The propensity of the human mind to generalise, and the necessity of forming the heavenly bodies into some regular system, before any advancement could be expected, together with the difficulties which were to be surmounted in the execution of this project, were undoubtedly the chief causes, which retarded, for so many ages, the progress of astronomical science. The Sun and Moon, indeed, the planets and the fixed stars, seemed to perform diurnal revolutions round the earth, in nearly the same time.—The sun and the moon moved every day farther and farther to the east; and the fixed stars kept invariably the same distance from each other. But though the regularity of these motions were so far favourable to the formation of a system, yet the appearances of Mercury and Venus, and the retrograde motions of the superior planets, would baffle every attempt that was made to generalise the phenomena of the heavens.

But so strong was the propensity of man to form into some regular order, the scattered appearances of nature, that the Pythagorean system was framed by degrees, differing in no respects from that which Copernicus afterwards confirmed, and which Newton has established, by the strictest and most philosophical induction. This system, however, was merely a fortunate conjecture of the Grecian philosopher; and as he had no proper data, by which he could satisfy his own mind, or produce conviction in the minds of others; it soon fell into neglect, and gave way to the more alluring system of Ptolemy, which, by appealing to the senses of mankind, extorted their approbation; and for more than a thousand years maintained the pre-eminence in the schools of philosophy.

About the beginning of the 16th century, however, when experiment and observation had a greater share in the formation of philosophical opinions, the Pythagorean system was revived by Copernicus, while that of Ptolemy was shown to be insufficient for explaining the phenomena of the heavens. But the votaries of superstition could not adopt a system, which seemed to war against the information of their senses, and contradict the positive declaration of heaven.

The system of Tycho was consequently framed, which explained the irregularities of the heavenly bodies, while it tallied with the literal interpretation of Scripture. It was not, however, of long duration; for when the philosophy of Newton was given to the world, the Copernican system was

was eſtabliſhed on the ſureſt baſis, and ſupported by arguments which the moſt prejudiced mind could ſcarcely reſiſt.

Having thus attempted to give a general view of the progreſs of aſtronomical ſcience, we ſhall endeavour, in the ſequel of this eſſay, to give a ſhort account of the different ſyſtems which have been mentioned; to point out the cauſes from which they ſeem to have ariſen; and to ſhew, by appreciating their reſpective merits, that the ſyſtem of Copernicus is alone entitled to our reception, both from the ſatisfactory explanation which it affords of every celeſtial appearance, and from the ſimplicity of thoſe laws, which are neceſſary for preſerving it in being. The ſyſtem of Ptolemy, therefore, firſt claims our attention.

Although Ariſtotle, and ſome other philoſophers, had imagined that the earth was devoid of all motion; yet Ptolemy was the firſt who upon this principle formed a regular ſyſtem, and applied it to an explanation of aſtronomical appearances. He was of opinion, that the earth remained immoveable in the centre of the univerſe; that the Moon, Mercury, Venus, the Sun, and other planets, revolved round the earth, from Weſt to Eaſt, at certain ſtated periods; that the ſphere of the fixed ſtars, regarding the earth as a centre, completed its revolution from Weſt to Eaſt in the ſpace of 2500 years; and that both the planets and fixed ſtars were carried round the earth in a contrary direction every twenty-four hours. All theſe motions were neceſſary for explaining the phenomena; but there were many appearances, for which this ſyſtem could by no means account. The appearances of Mercury and Venus, which are never found in oppoſition to the Sun, directly contradicted it, and the flattening of the poles of the earth could be aſcribed to no cauſe. The very ſuppoſition, that bodies of ſuch immenſe magnitude as the Sun and the planets ſhould revolve round the globe, which we inhabit, is extremely unphiloſophical; and the clumſy appendages of ſolid orbits and cryſtalline heavens, which the abettors of this ſyſtem were under the neceſſity of framing, could be maintained only in an age of darkneſs, when ſuperſtition and ignorance were equally predominant. From cauſes, however, which we ſhall now proceed to explain, the ſyſtem of Ptolemy maintained its ground for more than a thouſand years, and was defended by its abettors, with as much acrimony and zeal, as if the cauſe of God and of man had depended upon the immobility and central ſituation of the earth.

To form high and favourable opinions of ourſelves, and every thing with which we are connected, ſeems to be a principle of extenſive influence over the mind of man. In the earlier ages of ſociety he perceives, that the lower animals are made for his uſe, and ſubjected to his power; he perceives, that the fruits of the field are intended to alleviate his hunger, and the ſprings of water to aſſuage his thirſt: and by reflecting, at the ſame time, on the poſture of his body, and on the powers of his mind, he naturally concludes, that he is lord of the creation. Influenced by the ſame principle, he vainly ſuppoſes, that the ſpot of ground, which he inhabits, is the centre of the univerſe; and that the whole creation is bounded by the hills, which form his horizon. His views being thus confined within ſuch narrow bounds, and the moſt unlimited confidence being placed in the evidence of his ſenſes, man forms many whimſical opinions, which can have no exiſtence in the nature of things. The ſenſe of ſight being particularly liable to miſlead us in our conceptions of diſtance and motion, it is evident that the notions, which the ancients would

would generally form concerning the magnitudes, the diſtances, and the real motions of the heavenly bodies, would be in many reſpects ſimilar to thoſe of Ptolemy; and that the ſtability of the earth, and the motion of the Sun would be the foundation of their ſyſtem. To ſuppoſe, that the Sun, and all the heavenly bodies, revolved round the earth, merely for the purpoſe of affording us light, evidently reſults from the principle which has been already mentioned; and to believe that the Sun moves while the earth is at reſt, can reſult only from a ſlaviſh dependence upon the ſuggeſtions of our ſenſes. In the progreſs of time, however, theſe errors would have been corrected by the application of judgment, had not a cauſe of a very powerful nature operated in behalf of the Ptolemaic ſyſtem. The church of Rome, adhering with religious obſtinacy to ſome ſcattered ſentences in ſcripture, inculcated with the greateſt zeal, the ſtability of the earth, and the motion of the Sun. They repreſented thoſe who were of a contrary opinion, as the enemies of God; and puniſhed them with as much rigour as if they had been the enemies of man. Their philoſophers indeed attempted to make their notions harmoniſe with the principles of reaſon; but as they always failed in their endeavours, they were under the neceſſity of defending them as the opinions of their maſter, and as the declarations of ſcripture. The progreſs of philoſophy, however, about the beginning of the 16th century, opened the eyes of men, and weakened the deep-rooted dogmas of ſuperſtition. The ſyſtem of Ptolemy, therefore, would neceſſary decline, when the cauſe which ſupported it, had loſt its influence over the minds of philoſophers. At this important period, Copernicus aroſe, revived the ſyſtem of Pythagoras, and pointed out the inefficacy of the Ptolemaic hypotheſis, to ſolve the phenomena of the planets. He ſuppoſed, that the Sun was ſituated in the centre of the ſyſtem, deſtitute of all progreſſive motion, but diſpenſing his light and his heat to all the planets, which ſurround him. He ſuppoſed, that, while the earth revolved round the Sun, it had alſo a rotatory motion, upon its axis; that the Moon attended the earth as a ſatellite, to ſupply the abſence of the Sun; and that all the fixed ſtars had no progreſſive motion from Eaſt to Weſt, but were the centres of other ſyſtems, more glorious than our own. All theſe ſuppoſitions he confirmed by the ſtrongeſt arguments, and explained, upon his own hypotheſis, the moſt important appearances of the heavens. One could hardly have ſuppoſed, that a ſyſtem like this, ſo ſimple, ſo harmonious, and ſo conſiſtent with every thing in nature, could ever have been rejected by any rational man. It contradicted, no doubt, the ſuggeſtions of our ſenſes, but, in ſimilar caſes, we often find, that the information, which we receive through their medium, concerning diſtance and motion, is by no means to be truſted. This, therefore, can form no objection againſt the Copernican hypotheſis. Its enemies, however, have aſſailed it by more popular and convincing arguments. The ſcriptures, ſay they, uniformly declare the motion of the Sun, and the ſtability of the earth: it is impoſſible, therefore, to maintain, at the ſame time, the ſyſtem of Copernicus, and the inſpiration of the ſcriptures. To every unbiaſſed mind this objection will appear weak and unſatisfactory. The ſcriptures were not given to man to inſtruct him in the principles of philoſophy and ſcience. They were given him to ſmooth the painful journey of life, to rectify his conduct, and to better his heart. They were given him to point out a ſtate of happineſs in another world,

and

and to ſhow him how this happineſs was to be attained. Theſe were the objects which the Almighty had in in view, in proclaiming his gracious plan to a degenerate world. Had the ſacred writers blended the principles of ſcience with the precepts of religion; had they declared to an ignorant multitude, that the Sun was ſtationary, while the earth moved many thouſand miles in a minute; would they not have conſidered them as madmen? would they not have ſpurned from them their precepts, and rejected them with diſdain? But, beſides, it is only with thoſe, who believe that every word of the ſacred writings are inſpired, that this objection can have any force. For it is no objection to the divine authority of the ſacred writers, to ſuppoſe that they themſelves were totally ignorant of the true ſyſtem of the univerſe; and that they knew nothing of the philoſophy of nature, except what was neceſſary for their diſcharging with ſucceſs thoſe important duties with which they were entruſted. Notwithſtanding theſe circumſtances, however, which might have occurred on the ſlighteſt reflection, the members of the Romiſh church were ſo influenced by early principles, that they would not aſſent to the ſyſtem of Copernicus, though very many of them were of opinion, that the Ptolemaic hypotheſis did not explain the appearances of nature.

In this doubtful ſituation, another ſyſtem was wanting, which might harmonize equally with revelation, and with reaſon. The Tychonic ſyſtem, conſequently, was framed, which, being of an intermediate nature between that of Ptolemy and Copernicus, ſuited the taſte of the philoſopher, and removed the apprehenſions of the Catholic. This Daniſh aſtronomer placed the earth in the center of the univerſe, deprived of all motion, whether rotatory or progreſſive. He ſuppoſed, that the Moon revolved round it, every month, from Weſt to Eaſt; and that all the planets were carried round the ſun, while it revolved round the earth in the ſpace of an year. He was under the neceſſity of ſuppoſing alſo, that all the heavenly bodies revolved round the earth, from Eaſt to Weſt, in the ſpace of 24 hours. This ſyſtem was afterwards improved by Longomantanus, who having given the earth a diurnal motion, denominated his ſyſtem, the Semitychonick. The ſyſtem of Tycho, from the reaſons which have been mentioned, gained many abettors, and was defended with conſiderable ability againſt the objections of the Copernicans. Even at the end of the 17th century, after the Principia of Newton had been publiſhed, it is remarkable that this ſyſtem ſhould have been defended by the Profeſſor of Philoſophy at Utrecht; who concludes his obſervations on the other two ſyſtems in the following words. "Igitur ſyſtema "Ptolemaicum recte rejicitur, quia "phænomenis non ſatisfacit; ſic non "minore jure rejiciendum eſt Coper-"nicanum, et habendum pro mera hy-"potheſi, quum in revelationem *anc-*"*tet.*" (Luyts. Inſt. Aſtr. p. 214.)

Having thus attempted to give a brief account of the different ſyſtems of the univerſe, and point out the cauſes which gave them birth; we ſhall now proceed to mention the different forces, which are neceſſary for preſerving them in exiſtence, and ſhew the ſuperiority of the ſyſtem of Copernicus. In order to keep the ſtars and planets in the orbits which they deſcribe by their diurnal motion, both in the Ptolemaick and Tychonic ſyſtems, a force is neceſſary which tends towards the earth, and increaſes in proportion as the diſtance increaſes, contrary to every force with which we are acquainted. In both theſe ſyſtems alſo, another force is neceſſary for containing the fixed ſtars in

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the orbits, which they describe by their proper motion, from West to East; and if we suppose the stars to be placed at different distances, this force, like the former, must grow greater and greater, in proportion as the distance increases. In order to preserve these two systems, many more forces are necessary, which it would be improper to explain at present, as they require considerable reflection, and the assistance of diagrams to be fully comprehended. The two forces, which have been mentioned, are sufficient for shewing the absurdity of those systems, in which their existence is rendered necessary. There is nothing in nature which has the smallest resemblance to them, for every virtue, which is propagated from a center, decreases as the distance increases. The forces of gravity, of electricity, and magnetism, and those which are exerted between the ultimate particles of matter, are all similar in this respect. How absurd then is it to maintain a system, which requires the existence of a force, so uncommon and inconsistent? The system of Copernicus, on the contrary, requires, for its preservation, no force, but that of gravity, which from experiment and observation is known to exist. The stone falls by the very same force, with which the Moon is retained in her orbit; and all the planets are carried round the Sun, by the attraction of gravitation, which varies only with the distance at which they are placed. The Copernican system, therefore, is alone entitled to our reception, from the simplicity of the force, which preserves it; and from the accurate explanation which it affords, of every appearance in the heavens. But there is another circumstance, in which its superiority consists. In the systems of Ptolemy and Tycho, the earth obtained the most conspicuous station in the universe; and all the heavenly bodies, which respected it as a center, were formed for the comfort of its inhabitants. The hypothesis of Copernicus, on the other hand, gives us a more humble opinion of ourselves, while it inspires us with more exalted notions of divine power. According to it, the globe which we inhabit is but a corner of the universe, and vastly inferior to many of the planets of our own system. Our attention is directed also to other systems, more extensive and glorious than our own,—to systems, where intelligence and design may be more strikingly displayed. These opinions, indeed, the supporters of the Copernican system have never attempted to prove. They were at first proposed only as conjectures, supported by analogy and by a probability of the strongest kind; but from every discovery that has been made in the heavens, they have received additional confirmation. It is surely reasonable to believe, that the blessings of existence are not confined to our own globe. It is surely reasonable to believe, that the other planets are inhabited by beings, fitted like us for the sublime pleasures of intellectual exertion, formed for contemplating the works of their Maker, and destined for the enjoyment of future felicity, where imperfection and pain shall no longer be known.

JEDBURGH, *August* 23, 1802. } *D. B.*

Origin of BALLOONS.

A DESIRE to fly has prevailed in all ages; and most children have a wish to imitate the birds. Roger Bacon, born at Ilchester, in Somersetshire, in the beginning of the 13th century, was the first that is known to have conceived the idea of rising in the air, supported by exhausted balls

balls of thin copper. He was ignorant of the exiſtence of light air, endowed with as great an elaſtic force as common air; and therefore, though his example of light balls was the ſame as that on which balloons are now made, it was impracticable.—We find, that Dr Black, of Edinburgh, was the firſt perſon known to have ſuggeſted the poſſibility of incloſing inflammable air ſo as to render it capable of raiſing a veſſel into the atmoſphere, which was done in his lectures in 1767 and 1768; and Mr Cavallo, in 1782, firſt made experiments upon the ſubject; but he was unable to retain the air in any material light enough for the purpoſe, except a thick ſolution of ſoap, which the practice of children had ſhewn would aſcend even with reſpired air, rarified by heat. In the ſame year Stephen and Joſeph Montgolfier, paper-manufacturers of Annonay, about ten leagues from Lyons, filled a ſilken bag with air rarefied by burning paper, which roſe firſt in a room, and afterwards to the height of ſeventy feet, in the open air. Several repetitions of the experiments were made in the enſuing year, and finally dry ſtraw and chopped wool were conſumed, inſtead of paper. One of their balloons, about thirteen feet in diameter, roſe to the height of 3000 feet in two minutes.

At length, on the 13th of October 1783, M. Pilatre de Rozier roſe from the garden of the Fauxbourg St Antoine, at Paris, in a wicker gallery about three feet broad, attached to an oval ballon of 74 feet by 48, which had been made by M. Montgolfier, and which had alſo carried up a braſier, or grate, for the purpoſe of continuing, at pleaſure, the inflation of the ballon, by a fire of ſtraw and wool. The weight of this machine was 1600 pounds. On that day it was permitted to riſe no higher than eighty-four feet; but on on the 19th, when M. Giraud de Villette aſcended with him, they roſe to the height of 332 feet, being prevented from further aſcent only by ropes. In November of the ſame year, M. P. de Rozier, and the Marquis D'Arlandes, firſt truſted a balloon to the elements, who, after riſing to the height of 3000 feet, deſcended about five miles from the place of their aſcent.

About the ſame time Count Zambeccari ſent up from the Artillery Ground, in London, a ſmall gilt balloon, filled with inflammable air, which in two hours and a half reached a ſpot near Petworth, in Suſſex, and would not then have fallen had it not burſt. The diſcovery was now nearly as complete as in its preſent ſtate. Inflammable air, produced by iron filings and vitriolic acid, was ſoon uſed in the inflation of larger balloons, and by one of 27½ feet diameter M. Charles and M. Roberts roſe in December from the Garden of the Thuilleries in Paris, and in an hour and a half deſcended about twenty-ſeven miles from that city. In this voyage the thermometer fell from 47 to 31, from which *datum* the balloon was ſuppoſed to have reached the height of 3500 feet. Subſequent experiments may rather be enumerated than deſcribed. The adventurers in them were—

M. J. Montgolfier, who, in 1784, aſcended with ſix other perſons, from Lyons, by a balloon 131 feet high and 104 broad.

M. Blanchard, in March of the ſame year, roſe to an altitude which is calculated at 9500 feet, and deſcended in an hour and a quarter, having experienced heat, cold, hunger, and an exceſſive drowſineſs.

M. Bertrand, in April, roſe from Dijon to the height of about 13,000 feet, and in an hour and a quarter failed 18 miles.

Madame Thible, who was the firſt female adventurer, aſcended in June from Lyons with M. Fleurant, in the preſence

preſence of the late king of Sweden, and reached the height of 8500 feet.

M. Mouchet, in the ſame month, aſcended from Nantz, and travelled 27 miles in 58 minutes.

M. Rozier, in another experiment, reached the height of 11,700 feet, and found the temperature of the air reduced to five degrees below the freezing point.

The Duke de Chartres (Orleans) aſcended in July from the Park of St Cloud, with three other perſons.

Vincent Lunardi, on September 15, roſe from the Artillery Ground, by a balloon of 33 feet in diameter. In his aſcent, the thermometer fell to 29, and ſome drops of water round his balloon were frozen.

M. Roberts and Hullin, in the ſame month, ſailed from Paris to Arras in ſix hours and a half.

Mr Sadler, who was the firſt Engliſhman that aſcended with a balloon, roſe in October, from Oxford.

Mr Sheldon aſcended from Chelſea in the ſame month.

Mr Blanchard and Dr Jefferies, on the 7th of Janary 1785, croſſed the Channel between Dover and Calais, by means of a balloon, but had ſuch difficulty to keep it above the water, that they were obliged to throw overboard every thing they had with them.

Mr Croſbie aſcended from Dublin, in the ſame month, with ſuch rapidity that it was completely out of ſight in three minutes.

Count Zambeccari and Admiral Sir E. Vernon, in March, ſailed from London, to Horſham, 35 miles, in leſs than an hour.

Mr Windham and Mr Sadler aſcended from Moulſey Hurſt in May, and deſcended at the confluence of Thames and Medway.

Mr M'Gurie, in the ſame month, having aſcended from Dublin, was taken up in the Channel by a boat, when on the point of expiring with fatigue.

M. M. P. De Rozier and Romain aſcended from Boulogne on the 15th of July, with the intention of croſſing the Channel; but their balloon being a Montgolfier, took fire at the height of 1200 yards, and they were daſhed to pieces by the fall.

Mr Croſbie again aſcended from Dublin, and Major Money from Norwich, in the ſame month, both fell into the ſea, and were with great difficulty ſaved.

M. Blanchard, in Auguſt, ſailed from Liſle to a diſtance of 300 miles before he deſcended.

To the Editor of the Edinburgh Magazine.

SIR,

IN your Magazine for April 1802, Lord Buchan has offered an *important* contribution to the literary hiſtory of Scotland. As a teſtimony of my gratitude, I beg leave to communicate a little information for the benefit of his Lordſhip.

The "Inſcription on the Admirable CRICHTON's Portrait in the old houſe of Frendraught," your noble correſpondent moſt obligingly ſends "to be inſerted in the Edinburgh Magazine, for preſervation, afterwards to find its way into the ſecond edition of the *Iconographia Scotica*, and the *Biographia Britannica*, for the laſt edition of which, by Dr Kippis, he furniſhed, forſooth! the inedited materials."—His Lordſhip might have known that the inſcription is very comfortably preſerved in Dr John Johnſton's *Heroes Scoti*, Ludg. Bat. 1603. 4to. and in the firſt volume of the *Delitiæ Poetarum Scotorum*, Amſt. 1637. 12mo.

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The inſcription, as it appears in the Edinburgh Magazine, is diſfigured by erroneous punctuation It ought to have ſtood thus:

Et genus et cenſum dat Scotia: Gallia pectus
Excolit: admirans Italia terra virum
Ambit, et eſſe ſuum vellet. Gens æmula vitam
Abſtulit. An fatis hoc, dicat ut illa ſuum?
Mantua habet cineres, ſcelus exſecrata nefandum;
At tumuli tanto gaudet honore tamen.

JOHNSTON.

This reading reſtores the author's ſenſe, and the juſt meaſure of his verſe.

Notwithſtanding theſe profound inveſtigations of Lord Buchan and myſelf, let it be remarked, that the inſcription is of little or no value.

D. H. I.

Character of POGGIO.

From the Rev. Mr Shepherd's Life of Poggio.

INSPIRED by a zealous love of his country, he had conſtantly prided himſelf upon the honour of being a citizen of a free ſtate, and he neglected no opportunity which preſented itſelf of increaſing and diſplaying the glory of the Tuſcan republic. And this end he moſt effectually promoted by the ſplendour of his own accompliſhments. He ſo faithfully improved the advantages which he enjoyed in the courſe of his education in the Florentine univerſity, that amongſt the multitudes of learned men who adorned his age, he occupied a ſtation of the higheſt eminence. His admiſſion into the Roman chancery, and his continuance in offices of confidence under eight ſucceſſive pontiffs, afford an ample proof, not only of his ability in buſineſs, but alſo of his fidelity and integrity. Honoured by the favour of the great, he did not ſacrifice his independence at the ſhrine of power, but uniformly maintained the ingenuous ſentiments of freedom. The whole tenour of his writings evinces, that he united to the accompliſhments of literature an intimate knowledge of the world; and many paſſages might be quoted from his works, to prove that the eye of his mind ſurveyed a wider intellectual horizon than fell to the general lot of the age in which he lived. He was warm and enthuſiaſtic in his friendly attachments, and was duteouſly eager to diffuſe the renown of thoſe whom he loved. But acute ſenſations are not productive of ſignal virtues alone; they too frequently betray mankind into capital errors. Poggio was as energetic in the expreſſion of reſentment as he was enthuſiaſtic in the teſtimonies of his eſteem. The licentiouſneſs which diſgraced the early part of his life, and the indecent levity which occurs in ſome of his writings, are rather the vices of the times than of the man. Thoſe circumſtances did not deprive him of the countenance of the greateſt eccleſiaſtical dignitaries—they did not cauſe him to forfeit the favour of the pious Eugenius, or of the moral and accompliſhed Nicolas V. He ſeems indeed to have recommended himſelf to moſt of thoſe with whom he maintained a perſonal intercourſe, by the urbanity of his manners, by the ſtrength of his judgment, and by the ſportiveneſs of his wit.

As a ſcholar, Poggio is entitled to diſtinguiſhed praiſe. By aſſiduous ſtudy he made a conſiderable proficiency in the Greek language, and became intimately converſant with the works of the Roman claſſic authors. In ſelecting, as his exemplar in Latin compoſition, that moſt elegant of all models

models, the ſtyle of Cicero, he manifeſted the diſcernment of true taſte. His ſpirited endeavours to imitate this exquiſite model, were far from being unſucceſsful. His diction is flowing, and his periods are well balanced. But by the occaſional admiſſion of barbarous words and unauthorized phraſeology, he reminds his readers, that at the time when he wrote, the iron age of literature was but lately terminated. His moſt ſtriking fault is diffuſeneſs—a diffuſeneſs which ſeems to arife, not ſo much from the copiouſneſs of his thoughts, as from the difficulty which he experienced in clearly expreſſing his ideas. It muſt, however, be obſerved, that he did not, like many modern authors who are celebrated for their Latinity, ſlaviſhly confine himſelf to the compilation of centos from the works of the ancients. In the proſecution of his literary labours, he drew from his own ſtores; and thoſe frequent alluſions to the cuſtoms and tranſactions of his own times, which render his writings ſo intereſting, muſt, at a period when the Latin language was juſt reſcued from the groſſeſt barbariſm, have rendered their compoſition peculiarly difficult. When compared with the works of his immediate predeceſſors, the writings of Poggio are truly aſtoniſhing. Riſing to a degree of elegance, to be fought for in vain in the rugged Latinity of Petrarca and Coluccio Salutati, he prepared the way for the correctneſs of Politiano, and of the other eminent ſcholars, whoſe gratitude has reflected ſuch ſplendid luſtre on the character of Lorenzo de Medici.

Extracts from Ascerbi's Travels *through* Sweden, *&c.*

Stockholm.

THE grand and moſt diſtinguiſhed feature in the locality of this city, namely, being ſituate on iſlands, amid gulfs and lakes, is deſtroyed by the ice. The ſame water which divides the inhabitants of the different quarters in ſummer, unites them in winter. It becomes a plain which is traverſed by every body. The iſlands are iſlands no longer; horſes in ſledges, phaetons, and in vehicles of all ſorts, placed on ſcates, ſcour the gulf and lakes by the ſide of ſhips fixed in the ice, and aſtoniſhed as it were to find themſelves in ſuch company on the ſame element.

There is no part of this great maſs of water that is not arreſted and ſubdued by the froſt, except the current under the north bridge, and on the ſouth near the king's ſtable. Here the water, which during the keeneſt froſt daſhes and foams with great noiſe through the arches of the bridge, ſends up majeſtic clouds of vapour to a conſiderable height in the atmoſphere, where in the extreme rigour of winter, being converted by the intenſeneſs of the cold into ſolid particles, they are precipitated down through their weight, and preſenting their ſurface to the ſun, aſſume the appearance of a ſhower of ſilver ſand reflecting the ſolar rays, and adorned with all manner of colours. In the interior of Stockholm, throughout all its different quarters, every thing in winter in like manner undergoes a ſudden change. The ſnow that begins to fall in the latter weeks of autumn, covers and hides the ſtreets for the ſpace of ſix months, and renders them more pleaſant and convenient than they are in ſummer or autumn; at which ſeaſons, partly on account of the pavement, and partly on account of the dirt, they are often almoſt impaſſable. One layer of ſnow on another, hardened by the froſt, forms a ſurface more equal and agreeable to walk on, which is ſometimes raiſed more than a yard above the ſtones of the ſtreet. You are no long-

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er ſtunned by the irkſome noiſe of carriage wheels, but this is exchanged for the tinkling of little bells, with which they deck the horſes before the ſledges. The only wheels now to be ſeen in Stockholm are thoſe of ſmall carts employed by men ſervants of families to fetch water from the pump in a caſk. This compound of cart and caſk always ſtruck me as a very curious and extraordinary object, inſomuch that I once took the trouble of following it, in order to have a nearer view of the whimſical robe in which the froſt had inveſted it, and particularly of the variegated and fantaſtical drapery with which the wheels were covered and adorned. This vehicle, with all its appurtenances, afforded to a native of Italy a very ſingular ſpectacle. The horſe was wrapped up, as it ſeemed, in a mantle of white down, which, under his breaſt and belly, was fringed with points and tufts of ice. Stalactical ornaments of the ſame kind, ſome of them to the length of a foot, were alſo attached to his noſe and mouth. The ſervant that attended the cart had on a frock, which was encruſted with a ſolid maſs of ice. His eyebrows and hair jingled with icicles, which were formed by the action of the froſt on his breath and perſpiration.

The ſeaſon of ſummer, at which time the nobility and gentry retire to their country houſes, are fitted up with great magnificence and luxury. Thoſe villas are for the moſt part pleaſantly ſituate, and embelliſhed by works of art, which ſecond and improve the efforts of nature. You there find hot-houſes, in which they raiſe peaches, pine-apples, grapes, and other fruits. All kinds of wines, liquors, and other delicacies, are laviſhed at the table of a Swediſh gentleman, or rich manufacturer, or merchant in the country.

Royal Proceſſion.

On the 24th of June, or Midſummer-day, the king and royal family come to the park, where they take up their abode in tents for the remainder of the month, that is for the ſpace of nearly a week. A camp is formed of the garriſon of Stockholm, compoſed of two regiments of foot-guards, ſome companies of horſe-guards, and a corps of artillery. Along the lines of the camp they raiſe poles or poſts, adorned with branches of cyphers, and ſometimes ſcutcheons with mottos or devices. At the foot of the poſts are placed barrels of beer on wooden frames. About ſix or ſeven o'clock in the afternoon, on a particular ſignal, the barrels are opened, when each ſoldier is preſented with a pipe, a loaf of bread, two herrings, and ſome money. All this is done at the expence of the officers. In the mean time, the military muſic plays, and the ſoldiers begin to drink and to dance. Upon each of the barrels ſits a ſoldier, in the form of a Bacchus, or of ſome other figure more or leſs ridiculous. Thoſe that are dreſſed up in this manner firſt taſte the liquor and propoſe the toaſts, which are generally numerous, and conſtantly accompanied with the cry of *vivat*, anſwering to the Engliſh huzza. When any of the royal family, or a general officer, chance to paſs by, their healths are drank, and always with the ſame accompaniment of *vivat*. A kind of maſquerade enſues for a ſhort time, during which the ſoldiers amuſe the people, that flock round them in the lines of the camp with ſongs, and indulge themſelves in various freaks and arts of merriment. On the beating of the retreat every thing is ſubmitted to the reign of order. Such feſtivals, without diminiſhing reſpect, certainly tend to excite in the ſoldiery and people an intereſt and attachment to the royal family,

Dinner-parties.

The Swediſh dinner parties are expenſive

penſive arrangements of ſhow and formality. It will often happen that out of forty or fifty people, who appear in conſequence of an invitation ſent with all poſſible ceremony, and perhaps a week or a fortnight before the appointed day, ſcarcely three or four know one another ſufficiently to make the meeting agreeable. A foreigner may ſtill fare worſe, and have the misfortune of being ſeated near a perſon totally unacquainted with any language but his own. Before the company ſit down to dinner, they firſt pay their reſpects to a ſide table, laden with bread, butter, cheeſe, pickled ſalmon, and liquor, or brandy, and by the taſting of theſe, previous to their repaſt, endeavour to give an edge to their appetite, and to ſtimulate the ſtomach to perform its office. After this prelude, the gueſts arrange themſelves about the dinner table, where every one finds at his place three kinds of bread, flat and coarſe rye bread, white bread, and brown bread. The firſt ſort is what the peaſants eat; it is criſp and dry; the ſecond ſort is common bread; but the brown, laſt mentioned, has a ſweet taſte, being made with the water with which the veſſels in the ſugar houſes are waſhed, and is the naſtieſt thing poſſible. All the diſhes are at once put upon the table, but no one is allowed to aſk for what he likes beſt, the diſhes being handed round in regular ſucceſſion; and an Engliſhman has often occaſion for all his patience, to wait till the one is put in motion on which he has fixed his choice. The Swedes are more knowing in this reſpect, and, like the French, eat of every thing that comes before them: and although the different diſhes do not ſeem to harmonize together, yet ſuch is the force of habit, that the gueſts find no inconvenience from the moſt oppoſite mixtures. Anchovies, herrings, onions, eggs, paſtry, often meet together on the ſame plate, and are ſwallowed promiſcuouſly. The ſweet is aſſociated with the four, muſtard with ſugar, confectionaries with ſalt meat, or ſalt fiſh; in ſhort, eatables are intermingled with a poetical licence, that ſets the precepts of Horace at defiance.—

Sed non ut placidis coeant immitia.

Extreme paſſion for Cards.

A Nobleman of great rank having waited longer than uſual for his dinner, and ſeeing that no preparation was made for it, went down to call his ſervants to an account, and to examine into the reaſon of the delay. He found his houſehold, in imitation of their ſuperiors, deeply engaged at cards. They excuſed themſelves to their maſter by telling him that they were now at the moſt intereſting point of the game, and the butler, who had the greateſt ſtake, took the liberty of explaining the caſe to his Excellency, who could not in conſcience but approve his reaſons. However, being unwilling to wait for his dinner till the game was decided, he ſent the butler to lay the cloth, while he himſelf ſat down with the other ſervants, and managed the intereſt of that individual in his abſence.

Gulph of Bothnia.

The diſtance acroſs is forty-three Engliſh miles, thirty of which you travel on the ice without touching on land. This paſſage over the frozen ſea is, doubtleſs, the moſt ſingular and ſtriking ſpectacle that a traveller from the ſouth can behold. I laid my account with having a journey more dull and unvaried than ſurpriſing or dangerous. I expected to travel forty-three miles without ſight of land, over a vaſt and uniform plain, and that every ſucceſſive mile would be in exact uniſon and monotonous correſpondence with thoſe I had already travelled; but my aſtoniſhment was greatly increaſed in proportion as we advanced from our ſtarting poſt. The ſea, at

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firſt ſmooth and even, became more and more rugged and unequal. It aſſumed, as we proceeded, an undulating appearance, reſembling the waves by which it had been agitated. At length we met with maſſes of ice heaped one upon the other, and ſome of them ſeeming as if they were ſuſpended in the air, while others were raiſed in the form of pyramids. On the whole, they exhibited a picture of the wildeſt and moſt ſavage confuſion, that ſurprized the eye by the novelty of its appearance. It was an immenſe chaos of icy ruins, preſented to view under every poſſible form, and embelliſhed by ſuperb ſtalactites of a blue green colour.

Amidſt this chaos, it was not without difficulty, and trouble, that our horſes and ſledges were able to find and purſue their way. It was neceſſary to make frequent windings, and ſometimes to return in a contrary direction, following that of a frozen wave, in order to avoid a collection of icy mountains that lay before us. In ſpite of all our expedients for diſcovering the eveneſt paths, our ſledges were every moment overturned to the right or the left; and frequently the legs of one or other of the company, raiſed perpendicularly in the air, ſerved as a ſignal for the whole caravan to halt. The inconvenience and danger of our journey were ſtill further increaſed by the following circumſtance: Our horſes were made wild and furious, both by the ſight and ſmell of our great peliſſes, manufactured by the ſkins of Ruſſian wolves or bears.

Whenever one of the ſledges was overturned, the horſes belonging to it, or that next to it, frighted at the ſight of what they ſuppoſed to be a wolf or a bear rolling on the ice, would ſet off at full gallop, to the great terror of both paſſenger and driver. The peaſant, apprehenſive of loſing his horſe in the midſt of this deſert, kept firm hold of the bridle, and ſuffered the horſe to drag his body through maſſes of ice, of which ſome ſharp points threatened to cut him to pieces. The animal, at laſt wearied out by the conſtancy of the man, and diſheartened by the obſtacles continually oppoſed to his flight, would ſtop; then we were enabled to get into our ſledges, but not till the driver had blindfolded the animal's eyes.

Antiquity of COURSING.

From the Rev. W. B. Daniel's Rural Sports.

THIS amuſement is of great antiquity, and is treated on by Arrian, who flouriſhed A. D. 150. It was firſt uſed by the Gauls, the moſt luxurious and opulent of whom uſed to ſend out good hare-finders early in the morning, to thoſe places where it was likely to find hares ſitting; they returned to their employers with an account of the number of hares found, who then mounted their horſes, and took out their greyhounds to courſe them; not more than two greyhounds were to be ran at once, and thoſe were not to be laid in too cloſe to the hare, for although the animal is ſwift, yet when firſt ſtarted, ſhe is ſo terrified by the hallooing, and by the cloſeneſs and ſpeed of the dogs, that her heart is overcome with fear, and in the confuſion very often the beſt ſporting hares were killed without ſhewing any diverſion; ſhe was therefore allowed to run ſome diſtance from her ſeat, before the dogs were ſet after her. The beſt hares were thoſe found in open and expoſed places; they did not immediately try to avoid the danger by running to woods, but while contending in ſwiftneſs with the greyhounds, moderated their own ſpeed according as they were preſſed:

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overmatched in ſpeed by the dogs, they then tried to gain ground by frequent turns, which threw the dogs beyond them, making at the ſame time their ſhorteſt way to the covers, or neareſt ſhelter. The true ſportſman, even in Arrian's time, did not take out his dogs to deſtroy the hares, but for the ſake of ſeeing the conteſt between them, and was glad if the hare eſcaped, which was never prevented, by diſturbing any brake in which ſhe might have concealed herſelf, after beating the greyhounds. They were alſo frequently taken alive from the dogs, by the horſemen who cloſely followed them, and after the greyhounds were taken up, were turned down for future ſport. They uſed to ſpeak to their greyhounds while in the field, conſidering it a kind of encouragement to them to know that their maſter was a witneſs of the excellence of their running; but this ſpeaking was recommended to be chiefly confined to the firſt courſe, leſt, after being weakened by a ſecond or third, they might, by ſuch encouragement, exert themſelves beyond their ſtrength, and hurt their inſides, which was thought to be the deſtruction of many good dogs.

Thoſe who had not the conveniency of hare-finders, went out commonly in a company on horſeback, when they beat the likely grounds, and on ſtarting a hare the greyhounds were let looſe after her: thoſe who were more keen after the ſport, uſed to go on foot, and if any one accompanied them on horſeback, it was his buſineſs to follow the dogs during the courſe. It is ſingular, that, after the lapſe of ſo many centuries, the mode of beating for a hare in courſing, ſhould be now exactly what it then was. The company were drawn up in a ſtraight rank, either horſe or footmen, and proceeded at certain diſtances from each other, in a direct line to a given point, and wheeling round that they might not go over preciſely the ſame track, they beat the ground regularly back. This practice is ſtill continued. A perſon was appointed to take the command of the ſport, if there were many dogs out; he gave orders that ſuch and ſuch dogs ſhould be ſlipped, according as the hare took to the right or left, and theſe orders were punctually obeyed.

The Gauls ſometimes mixed and uſed finders with their greyhounds, and while theſe tried to find the hare, the greyhounds were led by the hand at a ſmall diſtance, taking care however to lead them where the hare was moſt likely to come; and here the greyhounds pretty well ſupplied the uſe of Xenophon's nets. This method of courſing was deemed irregular, as the ſtouteſt hares were ſo alarmed with the cries of the finders, that if they did not ſtart a very conſiderable way before, they were ſure to be killed. This method is very much practiſed in ſome parts of Great Britain, to the great conſolation of thoſe, who think no courſe worth ſeeing, unleſs there is a hare at the end of it.

A young hare when found ſitting, was not diſturbed, as it was conſidered unfair to run the greyhounds at her; but with the finders, (who are ſaid to have been very eager through hunger, and ſo deſirous of eating up what they caught, that it was difficult to get them off, even by beating them with ſticks) the exerciſe of this clemency was impoſſible.

In our own country, during the reign of king John, greyhounds were frequently received by him as payment in lieu of money, for the renewal of grants, fines, and forfeitures, belonging to the crown: the following extracts prove this monarch to have been exceedingly partial to this kind of dogs. A fine paid A. D. 1203, mentions five hundred marks, ten horſes, and ten leaſhes of greyhounds; another, in 1210, one ſwift running horſe, and ſix greyhounds.

The greyhound in ancient times

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was considered as a very valuable present, and especially by the ladies, with whom it appears to have been a peculiar favourite: in a very old metrical romance, called Sir Eglamore, a princess tells the knight that if he was inclined to hunt, she would as an especial mark of her favour, give him an excellent greyhound, so swift that no deer could escape from his pursuit.

Syr yf you be on huntynge founde,
I shall you gyve a good greyhounde
That is dunne as a doo:
For as I am trewe gentylwoman,
There was never deer that he at ran,
That might yscape him fro.

The Isle of Dogs, now converting to the first commercial purposes, derived its name from being the depot of the spaniels and greyhounds of Edward III. and this spot was chosen, as lying contiguous to his sports of woodcock-shooting, and coursing the red deer, in Waltham and the other royal forests in Essex, for the more convenient enjoyment of which, he generally resided in the sporting season, at Greenwich.

In the days of Elisabeth, when she was not herself disposed to hunt, she was so stationed as to see the coursing of deer with greyhounds. At Cowdrey in Sussex, the seat of Lord Montecute, A. D. 1591, one day after dinner, the queen saw from a turret, "sixteen bucks all having fayre lawe, pulled down with greyhounds in a laund or lawn."

In ancient times three several animals were coursed with greyhounds, the deer, the fox, and the hare. The two former are not practised at present, but the coursing of deer formerly was a recreation in high esteem, and was divided into two sorts; the paddock and the forest or *purlieu*. For the paddock coursing, beside the greyhounds, which never exceeded two, and for the most part consisted of one brace, there was the teazer or mongrel greyhound, whose business it was to drive the deer forward before the real greyhounds were slipt. The paddock was a piece of ground generally taken out of a park, and fenced with pales or a wall; it was a mile in length, and about a quarter of a mile in breadth, but the further end was always broader than that which the dogs started from, the better to accommodate the company in seeing which dog won the match. At the hither end was the doghouse, (to enclose the dogs that were to run the course) which was attended by two men, one of whom stood at the door, to slip the dogs, the other was a little without the door, to let loose the teaser to drive away the deer. The pens for the deer intended to be coursed, were on one side, with a keeper or two to turn them out; on the other side, at some distance, stood the spectators. Along the course were placed posts. The first, which was next the doghouse and pens, was the law-post, and was distant from them one hundred and sixty yards. The second was the quarter of a mile, the third the half mile, the fourth the pinching post, and the fifth marked distance, in lieu of a post, was the ditch, which was a place made so as to receive the deer, and keep them from being further pursued by the dogs. Near to this place were seats for the judges, who were chosen to decide the wager.

So soon as the greyhounds that were to run the match were led into the dog-house, they were delivered to the keepers, who by the articles of coursing were to see them fairly slipt; for which purpose, there was round each dog's neck a falling collar which slipt through rings. The owners of the dogs drew lots which dog should have the wall, that there should be no advantage; the dog-house door was then shut, and the keeper turned out the deer; after the deer had gone about twenty yards, the person that held the teaser loosed him, to force the deer forward, and when the deer was got to the law-post, the dogs

were

were led out from the dog-houſe, and ſlipt. If the deer ſwerved before he got to the pinching-poſt, ſo that his head was judged to be nearer the dog-houſe than the ditch, it was deemed no match, and was to be run again three days after, but if there was no ſuch ſwerve, and the deer ran ſtraight until he went beyond the pinching-poſt, then that dog which was neareſt the deer, (ſhould he ſwerve) gained the conteſt; if no ſwerve happened, then that dog which leapt the ditch firſt was the victor; if any diſputes aroſe, they were referred to the articles of the courſe, and determined by the judges.

In courſing deer in the foreſt or purlieu, two ways were uſed; the one courſing from wood to wood, and the other upon the lawns by the keepers' lodges. In the firſt, ſome hounds were thrown into the cover to drive out the deer, while the greyhounds were held ready to be ſlipt where the deer was expected to break; if the deer was not of a proper age or ſize, the dogs were not let looſe; and if, on the other hand, he broke at too great diſtance, or was otherwiſe deemed an overmatch for one brace, it was allowable to way-lay him with another brace of freſh greyhounds.

For the courſing upon the lawn, the keeper had notice given him, and he took care to lodge a deer fit for the purpoſe, and by ſinking the wind of him, there was no danger of getting near enough to ſlip the grey hounds, and having a fair courſe.

In courſing the fox, no other art was neceſſary but to get the wind, and ſtand cloſe on the outſide of the wood, where he was expected to come out, and to give him law enough, or he inſtantly returned back to the cover; the ſloweſt greyhounds were ſpeedy enough to overtake him; and all the hazard was, the fox ſpoiling the dog, which frequently happened; for the moſt part the greyhounds uſed for this courſe were hard-bitten dogs that would ſeize any thing.

The old couplets that deſcribed this ſpecies of dogs, were exact in the points they recommended, as neceſſary to form a complete grey hound.

Head like a ſnake,
Neck'd like a drake,
Back'd like a beam,
Sided like a bream,
Tailed like a rat,
And footed like a cat.

In chooſing a whelp, the choice formerly was governed by the weight, and that which was the lighteſt was generally thought to prove the nimbleſt and beſt. The raw-boned, lean, looſe-made, and unſeemly whelps in every joint, grew up well-ſhaped dogs; whereas thoſe that after three or four months appeared round, cloſe truſſed, and well built in every part, were not worth the rearing, ſeldom proving ſwift or comely. It was alſo an obſervation in ancient times, that the bitches were commonly more ſpeedy than the dogs, and this remark is ſtill made by thoſe who have had the beſt opportunities of deciding upon the ſubject.

For courſing the hare the plan was formerly to find one ſitting, if poſſible; and if a hare ſat near a cover, with a fair field behind her, the company ſtationed themſelves ſo as to force her to the champaign, for it is remarked that a hare ſeldom takes the ſame way that her head points when in her form.

The laws of courſing were eſtabliſhed by the duke of Norfolk in queen Eliſabeth's reign, and which were agreed to by the nobility and gentry who then followed the diverſion, and have been always held authentic.

Courſing has apparently loſt nothing of its value in the eye of the ſportſman, however it may have ſuffered in the ſplendour which accompanied it when honoured with the royal preſence in former ages. It is an amuſement much in vogue at the preſent period.

Character

Character of SUVARROF.

From Secret Memoirs of the Court of Peterſburgh, vol. III.

AT the time of Catharine's deceaſe, Suvarrof, at the height of favour and fame, was at the head of a powerful army, which occupied all the ſouth of Poland, and extended to the ſhores of the Euxine. Paul had never been partial to this bigoted, reſtleſs, volunteering, enterpriſing general, who was an enthuſiaſtic admirer of Catharine, and her gigantic projects. On his part, Suvarrof, a Ruſſian in the full import of the term, and conſequently an enemy to that minute and pedantic German diſcipline with which his future emperor was ſo infatuated, had never cultivated his good graces. The corps which he commanded, ſo far from being remarkable for exact order and rigorous preciſion in the uſe of their arms, were almoſt always at the extreme borders of the empire, employed in fighting, and diſtinguiſhed themſelves only by that ſort of diſorder which characteriſes the ſoldier in the time of war. Paul, however, was afraid of this popular general, who was beloved by the troops; but he at firſt kept terms with him, and confirmed him in all his commands; he afterward ſent him orders to eſtabliſh the army on another footing, and to carry into execution the new military regulations. Suvarrof, who was attached to the old Ruſſian inſtitutions, and even to thoſe of Potemkin, well adapted to the national character, with which he was perfectly acquainted; Suvarrof, perſuaded that the troops, which had ever been victorious, could not but be on a very good footing, was not eager to conform to the orders of the emperor, and indulged himſelf in pleaſantry when he received them. This was wounding to the quick Paul I. who gloried in reforming and improving, in his way, his military eſtabliſhment, and diſcourſed about the button of a gaiter, and the queue of a ſoldier, as of things the moſt important to the glory of his arms. He immediately ſent orders to the old general to reſign the command, and to quit the army without delay. The Ruſſian ſoldier, who, like the French, is a ſongſter, had already turned into a ſong the bon-mots of Suvarrof, which contributed not a little to throw ridicule on the new regulations.

We have ſaid above, that Suvarrof was a barbarian and a buffoon, but he was, perhaps, the fitteſt general for the genius of the Ruſſians; the ſoldier loved him, and the officer, though he regarded him as a burleſque character, fought under his orders with confidence. If Paul, in diſmiſſing him, had conſidered only his natural cruelty, or his folly, real or affected, perhaps the meaſure would have been applauded; but he appeared to aim at puniſhing the man devoted to his mother, and the thwarter of his military innovations, which were too abrupt and too ill-directed. When old Suvarrof received the order to reſign his command, he choſe to communicate it himſelf to his army, which he drew up in order of battle. In front of the line roſe a pyramid of drums and cymbals. Dreſſed as a ſimple grenadier, but decorated with all his orders, with the portrait of the empreſs and that of Joſeph II. Suvarrof harangued his companions in arms, and bade them a very pathetic farewell. He then ſtripped himſelf of his helmet, his coat, his ſaſh, his muſket, and all the marks of effective ſervice, which he depoſited on the pyramid, in the form of a trophy: 'Comrades,' ſays he, 'there will come a time, perhaps, when Suvarrof will reappear among you; he will then reſume theſe ſpoils which he leaves to you, and which he always wore in his victories.' The ſoldiers were moved with indignation

nation and grief; they murmured and lamented. Suvarrof quitted them in this manner, leaving the command to his lieutenant-general.

He retired to a ſmall houſe, which he had at Moſco; but a man ſo famous and ſo popular, whoſe diſmiſſion, after ſuch ſignal ſervices, cauſed a general ſenſation in the empire, gave umbrage to Paul in that capital where he was going to be crowned, and he iſſued an order for Suvarrof to be ſent away from Moſco. A major of the police entered one day into the retreat of the old warrior, and preſented to him this order, which baniſhed him to an obſcure village. With an air ſomewhat indifferent, Suvarroff aſked how much time was granted him for ſettling his affairs? "Four hours," replied the officer. "Oh, this is be-"ing overkind!" exclaimed the general; "an hour is ſufficient for Su-"varrof." He immediately put his gold and his jewels into a caſket, and went out. A travelling coach was waiting for him at the door. "Su-"varrof going into exile," ſaid he, "has no need of a coach; he can re-"pair thither in the ſame equipage "that he made uſe of to repair to "the court of Catharine, or to the "head of the armies—Bring me a "cart!" His will muſt be obeyed, and the officer was forced to perform with the old field-marſhal, a route of 500 verſts in a *kibitka:* in ſummer, this carriage is the moſt inconvenient that can be imagined; but Suvarrof was accuſtomed to it, travelling only in this manner, laid on a mattreſs, and wrapped up in his cloak. Having arrived at the village appointed, he took up his quarters in a wooden hut, under the ſuperintendance of the major and ſome ſubaltern officers of the police. No one durſt ſee him or write to him; and the veteran, habituated to the tumult of camps, and to a life the moſt active and buſtling, ſaw himſelf all at once completely inſulated. Reading, and the reflections which he had time to make during this diſgrace, had no ſmall influence on the remainder of his life. At laſt his daughter, married to a brother of the favourite Zubof, was permitted to pay him a viſit, which was ſhort, but at which Count Suvarrof ſeemed affected. The emperor, on his return to the reſidence, appeared alſo to relent by degrees, and wrote to him. A courier arrived, and delivered his diſpatch; on the cover was, in large letters—To Field-Marſhal Suvarrof. "This letter is not for me," ſaid the old warrior coolly, on reading the direction; "if Suvarrof were Field-"Marſhal, he would not be baniſhed "and guarded in a village; he would "be ſeen at the head of the armies." The courier, ſtupefied, in vain ſaid and repeated, that he had orders to deliver this letter to his excellency. However he was forced to carry it back ſealed to the emperor. On receiving it, Paul manifeſted no vexation; but Suvarrof from that time was guarded more ſtrictly. Thus it is that a celebrated man, confident in his fame and the public opinion, can ſometimes brave a deſpot.

Suvarrof was afterward placed at the head of the Ruſſian army acting againſt the French. At the battle of Zurick, in which he was engaged, the army, exhauſted by hunger, fatigue, and a thouſand privations, contemplated with deſpair thoſe ſummits covered with ſnow, which it was ſtill neceſſary to reach. The ſoldiers murmured, ſtopped, and refuſed to go further. Suvarrof cauſed a grave to be dug in the road, and laid himſelf in it; "Cover me with earth," ſaid he, "and here leave your general: you are no longer my children; I am no longer your father; I have nothing more to do than die!" Whereupon his grenadiers haſtened round him, requeſting with loud cries that they might ſcale the ſummits of St Gothard, and thence diſlodge the French.

For

For the Edinburgh Magazine.

Anecdotes of ALGERNON SIDNEY.

THE following characteriſtic anecdote of the celebrated Algernon Sidney is related by Mr Hollis, on the authority of Dr Hutcheſon of Glaſgow. During his reſidence in France, Sidney was one day hunting with the French king; and being mounted on a fine Engliſh horſe, which attracted his majeſty's particular attention, he received a meſſage that he would oblige the king by ſelling him the horſe at his own price. He anſwered, that he did not chuſe to part with him. The king determined to receive no denial; and gave orders to tender him money, or, in caſe of his refuſing to aſſent to any terms, to carry off the horſe by forcible means. When Sidney was apprized of this plan, he inſtantly took a piſtol and blew out the animal's brains. "My horſe," ſaid he, "was born a free creature, has ſerv-"ed a free man, and ſhall not be "maſtered by a king of ſlaves."

We may reaſonably conclude, that a man, who evinced ſuch an unbending ſpirit, on ſo trifling an occaſion, would be inflexible in affairs of ſuperior moment. His natural diſpoſition appears to have been impetuous and obſtinate, to a violent degree. A remarkable letter, addreſſed to him by his father, the Earl of Leiceſter, tends to place his real character in a very ſtriking point of view.

"Diſuſe of writing," ſays he, "hath made it uneaſy to me; age makes it hard; and the weakneſs of ſight and hand makes it almoſt impoſſible. This may excuſe me to every body, and particularly to you, who have not invited me much unto it; but rather have given me cauſe to think, that you were willing to ſave me the labour of writing, and yourſelf the trouble of reading my letters. For after you had left me ſick, ſolitary, and ſad, at Penſhurſt; and that you had reſolved to undertake the employment, wherein you have lately been; you neither came to give a farewell, nor did ſo much as ſend one to me, but only writ a wrangling letter or two about money, &c.

"It is true, that ſince the change of affairs here, and of your condition there, your letters have been more frequent. And if I had not thought my ſilence better, both for you and myſelf, I would have written more than once or twice to you. But though for ſome reaſons I did forbear, I failed not to deſire others to write unto you; and with their own to convey the beſt advice, that my little intelligence, and weak judgment, could afford.—I perceive by your letters, that you have been miſadvertiſed. For though I meet with no effects nor marks of diſpleaſure, yet I find no ſuch tokens or fruits of favour, as may give either power or credit for thoſe undertakings and good offices, which, perhaps, you expect of me. And now I am again upon the point of retiring to my poor habitation; having for myſelf no other deſign, than to paſs the ſmall remainder of my days innocently and quietly; and, if it pleaſes God, to be gathered in peace to my fathers. And concerning you, what to reſolve in myſelf, or what to adviſe you, truly I know not; for you muſt give me leave to remember, of how little weight my opinions and counſels have been with you, and how unkindly and unfriendly you have rejected thoſe exhortations and admonitions, which, in much affection and kindneſs, I have given you upon many occaſions, and in almoſt every thing, from the higheſt to the loweſt, that hath concerned you: and this you may

may think sufficient to discourage me from putting my advices into the like danger. Yet somewhat I will say: and first, I think it unfit, and, perhaps, as yet unsafe, for you to come into England; for, I believe, Powel hath told you, that he heard, when you was here, that you were likely to be excepted out of the general act of pardon and oblivion: and though I know not what you have said or done here or there, yet I have several ways heard, that there is as ill an opinion of you, as of any, even of those that condemned the late King. And when I thought there was no other exception to you, than your being of the other party, I spoke to the General in your behalf; who told me, that very ill offices had been done you; but he would assist you as much as justly he could. And I intended then also to speak to somebody else; you may guess whom I mean; but since that, I have heard such things of you, that in the doubtfulness of their being true, no man will open his mouth for you. I will tell you some passages, and you shall do well to clear yourself of them. It is said, the University of Copenhagen brought their Album unto you, desiring you to write something therein, and that you did "*Scribere in Albo*" these words,

——— *Manus hæc inimica tyrannis*
Ense petit placidam sub Libertate quietem;

and put your name to it. This cannot choose but be publicly known, if it be true. It is also said, that a Minister, who hath married a Lady Laurence, here at Chelsea, but now dwelling at Copenhagen, being there in company with you, said, "I think "you were none of the late King's "Judges, nor guilty of his death;" meaning our king. "Guilty!" said you, "Do you call that guilt? "Why, it was the justest and bravest "action that ever was done in Eng- "land, or any where else." With other words to the same effect. It is also said, that you having heard of a design to seize upon you, or to cause you to be taken prisoner, you took notice of it to the King of Denmark himself, and said, "I hear there is "a design to seize upon me; but "who is it that hath that design? "*Est ce notre Bandit?*" By which you are understood to mean the king. Besides this, it is reported, that you have been heard to say many scornful and contemptuous things of the King's person and family, which, unless you can justify yourself, will hardly be forgiven or forgotten; for such personal offences make deeper impressions than public actions, either of war or treaty *."

Characteristic Sketches of Lord HUTCHINSON.

THIS spirited and respectable Officer, who has of late acquired so much deserved celebrity, was born in May 1757, and is the second son of the late Right Hon. John Hely Hutchinson, Principal Secretary of State in Ireland, and Provost of the University of Dublin; a man who, in point of talent and eloquence, was certainly one of the first of his day. The family was ennobled in the person of his Lordship's mother: she was, in October 1783, created Baroness Donoghmore, of Knocklofty. On the demise of this Lady, the eldest son, Richard, lately created Earl of Donoghmore, succeeded to the Peerage.

The subject of this *memoirical sketch*, after attaining a respectable degree of classical erudition at those excellent seminaries, Eton College, and the University

* See Mr Hollis's edition of Sidney's *Discourses concerning Government*. Lond. 1763. 4to.

Univerſity of Dublin, commenced his profeſſional career, while very young, as a ſubaltern in a regiment of light dragoons on the Iriſh eſtabliſhment; from which he was ſoon promoted to a company in the 67th foot. In this corps he retained his commiſſion for ſome years, and, towards the cloſe of the American war, after paſſing thro' the intervening rank, was appointed to the Lieutenant-Colonelcy of the 77th, a Scots regiment.

In the interval of peace, his Lordſhip turned his attention to the attainment of a thorough knowledge of the laws, conſtitution, and intereſts of his country at large, and particularly of the local concerns of Ireland; at the ſame time, he miſſed no opportunity of improving himſelf, not only in the theoretic, but the practical, knowledge of his profeſſion; in the latter view, as well as ſpurning a life of inglorious inactivity, he determined to enter as a volunteer into the Imperial ſervice, that Power being then at war with the Turks, and had actually proceeded a conſiderable way on his route to Belgrade, recently the principal ſcene of action, when a pacification between the court of Vienna and the Porte neceſſarily ſuperſeded his deſign. This anecdote of Lord Hutchinſon's profeſſional character is far from being generally known. To this ſhould be added the relation of another circumſtance, which equally evinced his Lordſhip's magnanimity, and quick ſenſe of honour. On the occaſion of the General Election in Ireland, in 1783, the repreſentation of the City of Cork was warmly conteſted: his Lordſhip's father was one of the candidates, and, in the event, returned elder Member. In the courſe of the Election, ſome language held by the late Sir John Conway Colthurſt, Bart. with reſpect to his Lordſhip's father, induced him, whoſe filial affection was equal to his ſpirit, to call the Baronet to a perſonal account. On hearing that the latter expreſſed his determination to engage him with ſwords, on their firſt meeting, the Noble Lord, then Col. Hutchinſon, cauſed his adverſary to be acquainted, that he was better ſkilled in the ſcience of defence than probably he imagined (Colonel H. being eſteemed one of the beſt ſwordſmen in the kingdom,) and recommended the ordinary mode of fighting with piſtols. A meeting afterwards took place, but which, on account of the interference of the friends of both parties, was not attended with ſerious conſequences.

The ſubſequent remarkable occurrences in the life of Lord Hutchinſon are certainly of more public intereſt; they are, however, more generally known, and many of the circumſtances of too recent date, and too fully before our readers, to require touching upon in detail: a general notice of ſome of theſe will ſuffice. A few years after the period laſt alluded to, he was brought into the Iriſh Parliament, on the ſucceſſion of his elder brother to the Peerage, as repreſentative for a Borough (Taghmon, in the county of Wexford,) in which the family were ſuppoſed to poſſeſs the neceſſary degree of influence. At the General Election in 1790, the Right Hon. John Hely Hutchinſon reſigned his pretenſions for Cork, which City he repreſented more than twenty years, in favour of his ſon, ſtill Colonel Hutchinſon, whom he ſtrongly recommended to the Electors, in an eloquent and affecting addreſs, as a moſt eligible and unexceptionable perſon to ſucceed him: of courſe, he had the whole of his father's influence in his favour, which then included nearly the whole of the Corporation of Cork, and a reſpectable ſhare of the Government intereſt. This election was rather a conteſted one; the candidates being, beſides Colonel Hutchinſon, Mr Longfield (now Lord Viſcount Longueville,) and Mr Bouſfield,

field, the author of ſome political productions, particularly one in anſwer to Mr Burke's celebrated "Reflections on the French Revolution." The reſult of this election was, that Mr Longfield and Colonel Hutchinſon were returned by a conſiderable majority; and from that period his Lordſhip was a frequent, as well as a very able and eloquent ſpeaker, on the important queſtions which were agitated in the Iriſh Parliament.

Soon after the late eventful war had commenced on the Continent, and before Great Britain was forced to become a party, his Lordſhip repaired to the ſcene of action, in order to improve himſelf farther in the practical part of his profeſſion. It is ſaid, he viſited the French camp, while the once popular and fortunate La Fayette commanded on the frontiers; and he certainly was ſoon after preſent at ſome of the moſt important movements and operations of the Pruſſian and Auſtrian forces, under the command of that juſtly-celebrated General, the Duke of Brunſwick.

In a very ſhort time after Great Britain became a party in the war, his Lordſhip, eager to ſignalize himſelf in the ſervice of his country, accompanied his friend, the gallant and much-lamented Abercromby, as a Volunteer, in the firſt expedition to Holland, or, more properly ſpeaking, to Belgium. On this occaſion he diſplayed an uncommon degree of reſolution and intrepidity; and it is ſaid, he was one of the firſt to enter the trenches at the ſiege of Valenciennes. His Lordſhip was ſoon after raiſed to command, and, progreſſively, to the rank of Major-General, in which capacity he ſerved during the late unhappy rebellion in Ireland; and near Caſtlebar, a detachment under his command was oppoſed to a much ſuperior force, chiefly compoſed of French veteran troops, led on by General Humbert: in this affair, the enemy had neceſſarily the advantage; but General Hutchinſon evinced equal bravery and ſkill in his operations, and, not long after, he aſſiſted in the final diſcomfiture of the French invaders, when they ſurrendered to the Britiſh troops, by capitulation.

In the ſecond expedition to Holland, the General was engaged in ſervices the moſt perilous and active, and on every occaſion diſtinguiſhed himſelf in the moſt honourable manner. In the laſt general action, which took place in the peninſula of North Holland, he ſignalized himſelf with the greateſt *eclat*, when he led on Lord Cavan's brigade, in conſequence of that Officer's being diſabled in the early part of the action; on this occaſion General Hutchinſon received a ſevere wound in the thigh. Throughout the various diſpatches from the Chief Commanders on that expedition, his name and ſervices were mentioned in the moſt honourable manner, particularly in that from the Royal Duke, deſcriptive of the important action juſt alluded to.

In a few months after this, his Lordſhip had occaſion to diſtinguiſh himſelf in a way very different from his recent *profeſſional* exertions, but in an inſtance where, perhaps, his talents ſhone with a ſuperior luſtre, and in a ſervice of much more importance to his country—we allude to the diſcuſſion of the great national queſtion of the UNION in the Iriſh Houſe of Commons: on this occaſion General Hutchinſon really diſtinguiſhed himſelf, and on the 17th of February 1800 delivered one of the moſt argumentative, as well as eloquent and impreſſive, ſpeeches, perhaps, ever pronounced in a Legiſlative Aſſembly. One part, particularly, contains ſuch a comprehenſive and irrefragable demonſtration of the ſuperior policy of Union, that we cannot refrain from extracting it.

"Iriſh independence, if it could

be

be obtained without guile, it would be the height of folly and madneſs to aim at. Suppoſe for a moment, that there was no honeſt prejudice in favour of Great Britain—no common link of attachment, no ties of blood—no ſimilarity of manners, laws, and language; yet ſtill I ſay, that connection and union with Great Britain ought to be the counſel and ſound policy of Ireland. Surely it is better for you to be a component part of a great and free Empire, than a weak and petty State, alone, and reſting on the forbearance of France, a treacherous and deſpotic Ally!"

His Lordſhip's ſervices in Egypt are too well known, of too recent a date, and too fully before our Readers, through various mediums, to require expoſition in the preſent inſtance. It is of perfect notoriety, that after the death of his illuſtrious and juſtly-lamented precurſor in command, Sir Ralph Abercromby, the reſcuing the whole of that valuable country from our late adverſaries is chiefly to be attributed to the gallantry, ſkill, and profeſſional exertions of his Lordſhip; and of this the Sovereign ſeemed ſo ſenſible, that he was honoured with the Red Ribbon of the Order of the Bath worn by his friend and predeceſſor; and at the cloſe of the Egyptian warfare, which was terminated by General Hutchinſon in a way ſo highly honourable to himſelf, and ſerviceable to his country, he was honoured by a ſtill higher mark of the Royal favour, in being elevated to a Peerage of the United Kingdom by the title of Lord Hutchinſon, Baron of Alexandria, and of Knocklofty, in the county of Tipperary.

Some Account of the late Thomas Garnett, M. D. &c.

THIS Gentleman, whoſe parents are ſtill living, was born the 21ſt of April 1766, at Barbon, near Kirkby Lonſdale, of a reſpectable family. About the age of fourteen, after having received the firſt rudiments of education at his native village, he was placed under the tuition of Mr Dawſon, at Sedbergh, in Yorkſhire, where he laid the foundation of his medical and philoſophical knowledge. After this he proceeded to Edinburgh, and took his degree about the year 1788. During his reſidence there, he became the pupil of Dr Brown, whoſe new ſyſtem of medicine Dr Garnett, from this time, held in the higheſt eſtimation. Soon after this he viſited London, and attended the practice of the hoſpitals. He had now arrived at an age which made it neceſſary for him to think of ſome permanent eſtabliſhment. With this view he left London, and, on the death of Dr Wilſon, repaired to Harrowgate, where he publiſhed an analyſis of the Spa there, and was ſoon engaged in an extenſive practice. As this, however, was neceſſarily limited to the length of the ſeaſon, which laſted only three or four months, Dr G. ſoon after his mariage, which took place in 1795, formed the deſign of emigrating to America. At Liverpool, where he was waiting to embark, he was ſo ſtrongly ſolicited by Dr Currie, and ſeveral others, to give a chemical courſe of lectures, that he could not refuſe his conſent.

Theſe lectures met with a moſt welcome reception, as did alſo a courſe on experimental philoſophy, which he was afterwards induced to begin. He then received a preſſing invitation from Mancheſter, where he delivered the ſame lectures with equal ſucceſs. Theſe circumſtances happily operated to prevent his departure to America, and he became a ſucceſsful candidate for the vacant Profeſſorſhip of Anderſon's Inſtitution at Glaſgow, which made

made it impoſſible for him to accept an invitation he had received to give lectures at Dublin. In Scotland, his leiſure hours were employed in collecting materials for his "Tour through the Highlands;" which work was in ſome degree impeded by the ſudden death of his wife (for whom he had the fincereſt affection) in child-birth; an event which ſo ſtrongly affected his feelings, that he never thought of it but with agony. Dr Garnett was induced to relinquiſh the inſtitute at Glaſgow, by favourable offers from the new Royal Inſtitution in London, where, for one ſeaſon, he was Profeſſor of Natural Philoſophy and Chemiſtry, and delivered the whole of the lectures. On retiring from this ſituation, which was far too laborious for the ſtate of his health, at the cloſe of 1801 he devoted himſelf to his profeſſional practice, and took the houſe in Great Marlborough-ſtreet, where he built a new and convenient apartment, and completed an expenſive apparatus for the purpoſe of giving lectures to the public. During the winter of 1801 and 1802, he gave regular courſes on experimental philoſophy and chemiſtry, and alſo a new courſe on "Zoonomia," or, "the Laws of Animal Life," arranged according to the Brononian theory. Theſe were interrupted in February, for ſome weeks, by a dangerous illneſs, which left him in a languid ſtate; though he not only reſumed and finiſhed the lectures he had begun, but alſo commenced two courſes on botany, one at his own houſe, and the other at Brompton. In the midſt of theſe, he received by infection, from a patient whom he had attended, the fever which terminated his exiſtence in the ſpace of ten days.

Thus, in the prime of life, at the preciſe period when manhood attains its higheſt point of perfection, and the labours of early induſtry and application were about to be compenſated by a proportionate degree of emolument and reputation, Death cloſed the ſcene:—the hope of friendſhip was blighted, and the bright proſpect, juſt opened to the view, ſhrouded in darkneſs. His loſs will be felt and lamented far beyond the circuit of his immediate acquaintance: but who can paint the diſtreſs of his family and connections, of thoſe who knew him well, and tenderly loved him; who have experienced his amiableneſs of diſpoſition, his intrinſic goodneſs of heart, his ſteadineſs of friendſhip, his manly benevolence and ſenſibility, and the unaſſuming modeſty of his deportment? As an author, his writings have uniformly tended to encourage and promote the cultivation and advancement of uſeful knowledge; as a philoſopher and a man of ſcience, he has ſecured for himſelf a place in the temple of Fame, and an honourable mention in the annals of poſterity; as the private friend and companion, his name is engraven on the hearts, and will be dear to the recollection, of all who enjoyed the happineſs and the advantage of his ſociety.

For the Edinburgh Magazine.

A Comparative View of Different WEIGHTS *and* MEASURES.

M. PICTET, Profeſſor of Natural Philoſophy at Geneva, procured an Engliſh ſtandard of linear meaſure from Edward Froughton, the beſt mathematical inſtrument-maker in London. This was a braſs ſcale, 49 inches long, and divided by very fine and clear lines, into tenths of an inch. It was compared with another ſtandard executed by the ſame

ſame accurate artiſt for Sir George Shuckburgh, and no difference could be perceived.

M. Pictet took the ſtandard with him to France, and preſented it to the National Inſtitute; which appointed a committee to compare the definitive *metre* and the Engliſh ſtandard with each other.

The committee, with all poſſible care, at different temperatures, compared a ſtandard metre of platinum, and another of iron, with the Engliſh meaſure; and the reſults of the experiments agreed very well with one another. The report of the committee ends thus:—"Suppoſing all the meaſures at the temperature of melting ice, each of the ſtandard metres is equal to the 10,000,000th part of the quadrant of the meridian, and to 39.38272 Engliſh inches of M. Pictet's ſcale."

This report was made in the claſs of mathematical and phyſical ſciences at Paris, 6 Nivoſe, year 10: and the ſame was approved and adopted by the claſs, 26 Nivoſe, year 10, (16th January, 1802.)

On examining the reduction of the ſtandards of platina and iron, to the freezing point, it appears that they differ ſomewhat leſs than is ſtated in the report of the National Inſtitute; and that they coincide within an unit in the laſt place of the decimals, expreſſing their magnitudes, or one ten thouſandth of an inch. The ſtandard of platina at the freezing point (32° Fahrenheit,) becomes equal to 39.37380, and that of iron to 39.37370 Engliſh inches, on the ſcale of braſs at 55°, and the mean of theſe to 39.37100 Engliſh inches at 62°, which is the temperature that has been univerſally employed in the compariſon of Britiſh ſtandards, and in the late trigonometrical operations in particular. This reſult agrees ſurpriſingly with Mr Bird's determination of the lengths of the toiſes ſent by M. Lalande to Dr Maſkelyne, of which the mean was 76.734 inches: hence the metre, having been found to contain 36.9413 French inches, appears to be equal to 39.3702 Engliſh inches; or rather, to be either 39.3694 or 39.3710, accordingly as the one or the other of the two toiſes happens to have been the more correct, we may therefore give the preference to that which meaſured 76.736 inches.

Allowing the accuracy of the French meaſurements of the arc of the meridian, the whole circumference of the globe will be 24855.43 Engliſh miles, and its mean diameter 7911.73. Taking the ellipticity $\frac{1}{310}$, the axis will be nearly 7893½, the equatorial diameter 7928, and the diameter of a ſphere of equal ſolid content about 7916 miles; the braſs ſtandard being at the temperature of 62° of Fahrenheit.

As long, therefore, as the Engliſh ſtandard continues to be reduced to this temperature, we muſt conſider the metre as equivalent to 39.3710, and not to 39.3827 Engliſh inches.

Upon theſe joint authorities, it may be of uſe to reprint a table of the principal meaſures and weights now uſed in France, with the very ſlight corrections which this laſt compariſon has introduced into it. In tranſlating the French terms into Engliſh, we are fully at liberty to reſcue them, in ſome meaſure, from the barbariſms in orthography which have been committed in forming them.

Meaſures of length, the metre being at 32°, the foot at 62°.

	Eng. inches.
Millimetre	.03937
Centimetre	.39371
Decimetre	3.93710
Metre	39.37100
Decametre	393.71000
Hecatometre	3937.10000
Chiliometre	39371.00000
Myriometre . . .	393710.00000

	M.	F.	Y.	Ft.	In.
A decametre is	0	0	10	2	9.7
A hecatometre	0	0	109	1	1
A chiliometre	0	4	213	1	10.2
A myriometre	6	1	156	0	6

8 chiliometres are nearly 5 miles.

Measures of Capacity.

	Cubic inch. E.
Millilitre	.06103
Centilitre	.61028
Decilitre	6.10280
Litre, a cubic decimetre,	61.02800
Decalitre	610.28000
Hecatolitre . . .	6102.80000
Chiliolitre . . .	61028.00000
Myriolitre . . .	610280.00000

A litre is nearly $2\frac{1}{8}$ wine pints. 14 decilitres are nearly 3 wine pints. A chiliolitre is 1 tun, 12.73 wine gallons.

WEIGHTS.

A gramme is the weight of a cubic centimetre of pure water at its maximum of denſity. It has been found equal to 18.827 French grains, of which 576 made 472.5 Engliſh; and 489.5058 grammes make a pound of the ſtandard of the mint at Paris.

	Eng. grains.
Milligramme, ...	.0154
Centigramme, ...	.1544
Decigramme, ...	1.5444
Gramme, ...	15.4440
Decagramme, ...	154.4402
Hecatogramme, . .	1544.4023
Chiliogramme, . .	15444.0234
Myriogramme, . .	154440.2344

A decagramme is 6 dwts. 10.44 gr. tr.; or 5.65 dr. avoird.
A hecatogramme is 3 oz. 5dr. av.
A myriogramme is 22 lbs. 1.15 oz. av.
And 100 myriogrames are 1 tun wanting 32.8 lbs.

The above table is probably conſtructed on the ſuppoſition, that the denſity of water is a maximum when its temperature is 40° Fahrenheit, as has hitherto been generally determined. In the 2d Part of the 5th Volume of the Mancheſter Memoirs, Mr Dalton has found, by experiments ſuſceptible of conſiderable accuracy, that the maximum denſity of water is at temperature $42\frac{1}{2}$° Fahrenheit. He farther diſcovered, that the bulk of water is the ſame at any equal number of degrees above and below $42\frac{1}{2}$; for example, the bulk of water at temperature 35° is the ſame as at 50°. On this peculiar property of water depend many intereſting phenomena in the economy of nature. If the reſult of Mr Dalton's experiments be adopted, the table will require a ſmall correction.

Agrarian Meaſures.

	A.	R.	P.
Are, 1 ſquare decametre, . .	0	0	3.95
Hecatare, ...	2	1	35.4

For Fire-wood.

	Cub. f. E.
Deciſtre, $\frac{1}{10}$ ſtere, . . .	3.5317
Stere, 1 cubic metre, . .	35.3171

MONEY, *Copper.*

	E. grains.
Centime, 1 gramme, . . .	15.4
5 Centimes, or ſous, . . .	77.2
Decime, ...	154.4

Silver $\frac{9}{10}$ *or* $\frac{216}{240}$ *fine.*

Franc, 5 grammes,	3 dwts. 5.2 gr.
6 Francs, . . .	16 dwts. 2.1 gr.

The franc is nearly the ſame with the livre tournois, and worth about 10d. Bolton's penny weighs 435 gr.; his halfpenny 165; a ſhilling nearly 93 gr. and is $\frac{17}{20}$ fine.

It appears from Mr Broda's experiments, that in latitude 45°, a pendulum of the length of a metre would perform in a vacuum 86116.5 vibrations in a day: the length of the pendulum being ſuppoſed to increaſe with the latitude, in the proportion of the ſquare of the ſine of the latitude, multiplied by .000567, while

while the time of its vibration remains unaltered *.

In aſcertaining the length of the definitive metre, the French have taken every poſſible precaution to render their determination accurate. The menſuration of the arc of the meridian between Dunkirk and Barcelona has been completed: it is about the tenth part of the quadrant of the meridian; and from it chiefly the ſtandard metre has been ſettled. The metre thus determined is probably very nearly equal to the ten millionth part of the meridianal quadrant; but their equality is very uncertain. It is ſuppoſed, in all the meaſurements of the earth, that the plumb-line is perpendicular to the ſurface of ſtanding water, and conſequently that the the earth is homogeneous; which is contrary to daily obſervation. The ſame uncertainty might be inferred from the reſults deduced from different meaſurements. Some give $\frac{1}{115}$ for the ellipticity; others give $\frac{1}{310}$, while others give $\frac{1}{111}$, &c.

On this ſubject there is an excellent paper in the laſt volume of the Tranſactions of the Royal Society of Edinburgh, by Mr Playfair, Profeſſor of Mathematics in this univerſity. The learned and perſpicuous writer has given theoretical ſolutions of the figure of the earth; and has added many important obſervations, neceſſary to be attended to in the practical determination of this grand problem.

Perhaps a tabular view of the length of the foot of different countries will be acceptable to the reader. Since the Scottiſh foot is ſeldom uſed, it will be more convenient to expreſs the diffcrent meaſures in Engliſh inches and decimals of an inch.

	Eng. Inches.
The Engliſh foot, is . .	12.000
— Scottiſh foot, . . .	12.065
—Paris foot, ...	12.788
— Bruſſels foot, . . .	10.828
— Amſterdam foot, . .	11.172
— Dantzic foot, . . .	11.297
— Swediſh foot, . . .	11.692
— Daniſh foot, ...	12.465
— Rhinland foot, . . .	12.362
— Lyons foot, ...	13.458
— Bononean foot, . . .	14.938
— Milan foot, ...	15.631
— Engliſh yard, . . .	36.000
— Engliſh ell, ...	45.000
— Scottiſh ell, ...	37.200
A toiſe, or 6 Paris feet, .	76.728

The Engliſh chain is 4 poles, or 66 feet: the Scotiſh ſtatute chain is 24 Scottiſh ells, or $74\frac{3}{7}$ Engliſh feet, or 74 feet 4 inches and $\frac{4}{5}$ of an inch.

H.

For the Edinburgh Magazine.

Obſervations on the PROGRESS *of the* HUMAN MIND *in the* USEFUL *and* FINE ARTS.

(Continued from p. 45.)

IT is an intereſting, as well as curious ſubject, to trace the operations and progreſs of the human mind; to aſcertain its powers, and to know the extent of its exertions. But to do this ſucceſsfully, we muſt not only conſider what it now is, but what it has at any time been; not only how its operations have been exerted in our own caſe; but how they have been exhibited in the general ſyſtem of ſociety. If the antiquary deſerves praiſe, who can aſcertain an unintereſting date in chronology, or elucidate an obſolute cuſtom; certainly, he who can trace the principles of moral

* See Nicolſon's Journal of Natural Philoſophy, Chemiſtry, and the Arts, for Auguſt 1802.

moral action, and explain the original of those maxims, which have led to the formation and establishment of society, is not less worthy of our esteem. Considered as a subject of mere curiosity, it is most interesting to an inquiring mind. When we compare the perfection of modern science with the first feeble essays of art, among rude nations, we would be apt to consider ourselves as beings of a superior order, and as endowed by nature with higher powers of intelligence. An author or artist of the present day, by a *coup de main* of genius, soars at once to the pinnacle of knowledge, scorning the base degrees by which his fathers rose. These gigantic sons of heaven-born science fancy themselves indebted only to the native spring and stimulus of genius, and wonder that their fathers were fools so long.

For my part, I do not lay so much stress on this native energy of mind, nor could I promise so much from its unassisted efforts. The mind, as well as the body, is undoubtedly designed for action; and it will be active under whatever circumstances it is placed: but its activity may be spent on trifles or on crimes; and these can engage its attention as well as objects of the greatest magnitude, or studies of the deepest research. So far from the human mind naturally falling into the path of science, it is of all others the most unnatural to it. It is a by-path, a narrow road, in which cautious and contemplative genius, favoured by a happy conjunction of circumstances, only can move.

Those who estimate human abilities so highly, have been misled by considering what pure intellect might accomplish, without taking into the account the share, which the affections and passions have in promoting or retarding its operations. The powers of the understanding would be for ever dormant or uncultivated, unless they were summoned into action as the ministers of the passion. Let us take mathematics for an example, a branch of science, of all others, least liable to be affected by the influence of the passions, and we shall find, that even this study, the most abstract and remote from the common feelings of men, owes its advancement and perfection to the wants and desires of human nature. As soon as our wishes have learned to stray beyond the bounds prescribed by nature, as soon as a taste for elegance and foreign luxuries is introduced, the science which can ascertain proportion, or shorten the road to enjoyment, will be eagerly cultivated. For, though minds, devoted to study and contemplation, may receive pleasure from the abstract ideas of proportion, quantity, and magnitude; yet we may safely affirm, that these ideas never would have been reckoned a part of human knowledge, had not our wants and desires shewn their necessity. Here, then, the most abstract of all sciences, and that on which the most magnificent ideas of intellectual pre-eminence have been raised, owes its birth to the wants, perhaps to the caprice, of mankind. Nor must it be said, that when once a taste for knowledge is excited, it can never be lost. If the fluctuations in society destroy the taste, which originally fostered knowledge, science must inevitably sink; for any knowledge, without honour or emolument, will soon become a very unsavoury pursuit. Thus do our most exalted attainments depend on the form and constitution of society; and these on the humour and passions of men, which are unstable as the elements, and influenced by causes often beyond our controul.

I, who entertain but a moderate opinion of human abilities, am yet far from thinking, that we have exhausted the objects of knowledge, or carried our intellectual powers to their highest improvement. The acquisitions, which men have already made,

made, may be increaſed by ſources of information, yet unheard of; and our powers may be engaged on ſubjects of ſcience, of which, at preſent, we have not a conception. We have ſeen inventions ſtart into exiſtence, which had lain dormant from the beginning of ages; we have ſeen Algebra and Fluxions, Electricity and Galvaniſm, with numberleſs phenomena before unnoticed, added to the ſum of knowledge; and it would be hardy indeed to affirm, that ſciences, unknown and unheard of at preſent, do not remain to be diſcovered. I confeſs, however, that this is not an object ardently to be deſired; the knowledge we have, if rightly employed, is abundantly ſufficient for the preſent ſtate of ſociety; and to increaſe it, as far as the enthuſiaſtic imaginations of ſome have led them to expect, would encumber rather than enlighten us. But it is not my deſign to form viſionary theories of poſſible attainments. I rather wiſh, by a deduction of facts, to ſhew what has already been done; and if we may judge of what will be from what has been, we may ſafely pronounce, that the perfection of human nature is at leaſt at a conſiderable diſtance.

As I formerly attempted to trace the riſe and progreſs of poetry, I ſhall now, in purſuance of the ſame plan, offer a few obſervations on hiſtorical and dramatic compoſition.

As ſoon as men found it their intereſt to record their exploits, either as precedents to themſelves, as monuments of fame, or for the information of poſterity, the moſt ſimple and natural method would be, to do it without embelliſhment, and as nearly as poſſible in the exact words of the original actors. Accordingly we find, that the firſt hiſtorical monuments are either mere chronicles, ſuch as we may ſuppoſe the annals of Fabius Pictor to have been, or are in their nature purely dramatic. Perſons are introduced relating what they had done, ſeen, or heard; and the author is careful to keep out of ſight, leſt he ſhould deſtroy the credibility of his account, by ſeeming to take any part or intereſt in the narration. This method is certainly natural enough; and is in part adopted by all the moſt celebrated hiſtorians of antiquity. To render hiſtory inſtructive, it muſt be entertaining, that is, the reader muſt be ſo transformed by the power of eloquence as to become a ſpectator of the actions deſcribed; he muſt enter into the views and feelings of contending parties; he muſt hear, and determine in their deliberations. The ancient authors endeavoured to excite this intereſt in us, by putting their own ſentiments into mouths of their principal characters, and thus confining the reader's attention ſolely to the actors and their atchievements. This they thought ſo eſſential, that many of their moſt celebrated didactic compoſitions are thrown into the form of dialogue, where the author is completely concealed. This method is liable to one conſiderable objection, becauſe it is apt to make us think that the effuſions of patriotiſm, from perſons ſo nearly concerned, are nothing but the declamations of party-zeal, or intereſted ambition. Very different, however, is the practice of a modern author; he ſeems to be in perpetual terror of being forgot, and is continually obtruding himſelf upon our notice, by ſome impertinent reflection. We meet with few now-a-days, who have ſo much ſelf-denial, as to rob themſelves of the honour of a brilliant ſentiment or expreſſion, by aſcribing them to any but themſelves. Such was not the practice of the ancients. I mean not, however, to ſay, that, in this reſpect, they ſurpaſſed the moderns. Their method ſeems to approach nearer to the original principle, which gave birth to hiſtory; ours is more worthy of an enlightened and philoſophic age; and all that I cenſure in it, is the culpable

extreme

extreme of amuſing us with meagre reflections, inſtead of preſenting us with a faithful detail of circumſtances.

Poſterior to the firſt rude eſſays of poetry and hiſtory, would be the firſt feeble efforts of dramatic compoſition, as it partakes almoſt equally of the nature of both. The origin and progreſs of the Grecian drama, from its firſt exhibition on a cart or ſtage, after the manner of modern mountebanks, to its final perfection, has been traced with much learning and accuracy; and the beauty of its compoſitions has been extolled with the higheſt encomiums. But whatever may be the literary merit of the dramatic productions of the ancients, their ſcenical repreſentations, even in the zenith of their perfection, muſt have been very defective. It is true, they ſpared no coſt on the apparatus and decorations of their theatres; and it has been ſaid, that the exhibiting of a tragedy coſt the Athenians more than the equipping of a fleet or army in any ſingle campaign. But how could the genuine language of paſſion, or the affections of the ſoul, be exhibited ſucceſsfully, by a ſqueaking unnatural voice, uttered through a pipe or tube, and when the face, the mirror of the mind, was diſfigured by a monſtrous and hideous maſk? The Grecian actors could be little better than living puppets, ſince both their face and voice were altered: and were I diſpoſed to ſhow my learning, I could perhaps demonſtrate, that our modern *Punch* is lineally deſcended from the theatrical heroes of antiquity.

The chief effects, in the ancient plays, muſt have been produced by the external apparatus, which has, at all times, too much weight in determining the merit of plays. It is indeed an uſeful adjunct, but it is certainly altogether "from the purpoſe of playing," to make it the principal, or only inſtrument in exciting the paſſions. We hear of the Athenian ladies being terrified into fits and abortions, by the exhibition of ſome of their tragedies; and this may eaſily be accounted for, from the infernal appearance of their furies and demons. Such repreſentations, in our times, would in all probability, produce convulſions of laughter, inſtead of raiſing emotions of terror.

But, before we blame too freely the ancient mode of acting, let us ſee what can be ſaid in favour of it; and, in the firſt place, we may obſerve, that it was neceſſary to encreaſe both the natural ſize of the body, and the powers of the voice, in order to be diſtinctly heard and ſeen, in the immenſe ſpace of the ancient theatres. What figure would the moſt gigantic and Stentorian of modern tragedians, make before an audience of forty or fifty thouſand people? Their ſtately port and vociferous declamation would dwindle into inſignificance. It is difficult to command a ſmall modern theatre, amidſt the buzzes of applauſe, or diſapprobation of a thin audience; and what would it be, if forty thouſand of the mobility were admitted? The ancients ſeem to have been ſtrangely infatuated with the love of theatrical exhibitions. Their theatres were ſupported out of the public revenues, and all the world attended them. They were the only places where the people received both amuſement and moral inſtruction. The Athenians had ſuch a paſſion for theſe amuſements, that they almoſt choſe rather to give up their liberties than appropriate the theatrical money to the purpoſe of equipping a fleet againſt Philip. But, farther, the ancient mode of repreſentation was not inferior to ours even in point of *vrai-ſemblance*; for, by maſking the actors, the ſpectators were never diſguſted by the abominable grimaces, which modern actors exhibit; and which are certainly as unnatural

natural as any maſk whatever. I make no doubt, but the paſſions would be diſplayed with as good effect under a maſk, one ſide of which was painted with a ſmile, and the other with a frown, as by the horrid contortions of viſage which our modern actors affect. And, beſides, a man ſtalking in buſkins, with his pretty face concealed, would have none of thoſe temptations to affectation, and apery, (I beg pardon for the word) which diſgrace modern acting. Our players are more anxious to *repreſent* their own pretty ſelves, than the characters they aſſume; and will grin and ſimper, in order to ſhow a ſet of fine teeth or a dimple, though at the expence of time, place, and unity.

I may, perhaps, have occaſion afterwards, to offer ſome obſervations on other branches of the polite arts. In conformity to my main deſign, I ſhall conclude at preſent with ſome general obſervations, equally applicable to them all. On contemplating the hiſtory of mankind, I can diſcover no one fact, or principle, which will authorize us to expect a continued progreſſive improvement, or even ſtability, in the attainments we have already made. Inſtead of ſlow and gradual advances towards perfection; inſtead of that regular concatenation of circumſtances, and ſubſerviency of events, which philoſophers have pointed out; we frequently find mankind advancing with rapid ſteps to the higheſt degree of improvement, and directed in their operations by circumſtances, ſeemingly anomalous, and not reducible to any of the maxims which philoſophy has laid down. And when they have reached this point, inſtead of farther advancement, or gradual declenſion, we often ſee them relapſing at once, into their priſtine barbarity. I can ſee nothing to prevent the human race from remaining for ever ſtationary, provided it be content with moderate attainment; but I ſee every thing conſpire to prevent it from remaining long in a very high degree of improvement. This is contrary to the opinion of ſome great names in philoſophy, but I cannot help it: it appears to me conſiſtent with fact. The perfection of any art or ſyſtem, by ſure moral cauſes, carries in it the ſeeds of its own diſſolution; as the full maturity of natural productions is the ſtep next to their decline. As ſoon as any art or profeſſion is carried (comparatively ſpeaking) to the higheſt degree of perfection, ſucceeding artiſts or authors of genius, diſdaining imitation, or deſpairing of celebrity, in a province already preoccupied, either give up the purſuit altogether, or try to attain their end by means yet unattempted; and this deſire of innovation will infallibly lead to declenſion. We ſee this remarkably exemplified in point of language, in the later poets and hiſtorians of Rome. Many of them were men of great genius, but they found the department of eloquence completely pre-occupied. Deſpiſing, therefore, the ſervility of imitation, they deſerted the eſtabliſhed model of pure Latinity, and introduced a ſtile of their own, ſtuffed with dry, point, and quaint antitheſis. Let any one compare Lucan, Tacitus, and Seneca, with Virgil, Livy, and Cicero, and he will find the former as often exceed the latter in erudition and inveſtigation, as they fall ſhort of them in purity and correctneſs. The example of men of abilities, thus deſerting the received ſtandard of thinking, ſpreads its influence thro' the whole herd of inferior geniuſes; and this *exemplar vitiis imitabile* will ſoon corrupt the taſte of a whole nation. I ſhall cloſe theſe obſervations with the words of an elegant author, who is more attentive than any ancient hiſtorian that I know, to mark the progreſs of the arts, and the improvements in ſociety. "Ut primo, ad conſequendos quos priores ducimus accendimur,

aſcendimur, ita ubi aut præterire aut æquare eos poſſe deſperavimus, ſtudium cum ſpe ſeneſcit; et quod adſequi non poteſt, ſequi demit: præteritoque eo, in quo eminere non poſſimus, aliquod in quo nitamur conquirimus." VELL. PATERCUL.

DURIE,
18*th Aug.* 1802. } *J. E.*

The TRIAL; *a Tale.*

(Concluded from our laſt, p. 55.)

WE ſhall now explain the origin of the wonders which Sir Lewis D'Eichenlohe had ſeen. That part of the caſtle of Hardenberg was built in the earlieſt age of chivalry. Such was the conſtruction of the corridors, that a ſound uttered, however low, at one end of any of them, might be heard thro' it even to the other. Wax-lights had been conveyed into the place between the time of the contrivance of the plan and its execution: the reſt of the illumination was effected by phoſphorus. Gertrude acted as the repreſentative of the great grandmother of Emma. Emma's own form was exhibited by herſelf in perſon. The two ladies entered the ſubterraneous apartments by a back-door unknown to the knight. Some of Emma's female attendants executed the muſic, and produced the flaſhes of lightning. The monk, with a bowl rolled over a hollow plank, gave the thunder. When Lewis retired, Emma and Gertrude went alſo away, as quickly as poſſible, by the ſame ſecret door by which they had entered. They immediately took their carriage, and hence were able to reach the caſtle as ſoon as Sir Lewis.

To explain the reſpective feelings of Lewis and Emma after thoſe incidents would be leſs eaſy.

The words uttered with ſo much emotion by Lewis, 'Great God! let the fate be mine; but ſpare my Emma!' had inexpreſſibly affected Emma's heart. She had difficulty to refrain from ſtarting up from the coffin, and throwing herſelf into her lover's arms. Nothing could have withheld her, but the hope of a triumph yet more complete. Throughout the remainder of the evening, ſhe enjoyed the gayeſt flow of ſpirits; and if ſhe had happened to ſee the knight again, ſhe would undoubtedly have betrayed the ſecret to him: for ſhe thought it now quite certain, that he would exhauſt the potion from the cup.

Lewis, on the other hand, threw himſelf on his bed, in a ſtate of unutterable anguiſh of mind. During the night, his ſufferings were terrible. The fatal words ſeemed as if he ſtill beheld the characters of flame in which they were written. When he thought of Emma's death, he vowed to drink the beverage. Again, his own life would appear dearer to him than ever, and the love of life would ſuppreſs in his heart every other exalted ſentiment. Toward morning he fell into an unquiet ſleep, which, inſtead of tranquillizing his imagination, bewildered, inflamed, and diſtracted it a great deal more.

In the morning, his firſt care was to repair to the cloſet, where he had been directed to find the cup of death. It ſtood on an altar, and was filled with an unknown liquor, which ſeemed to be of a ſpirituous nature. He ſhuddered at the ſight; yet took it up and put it to his lips. Emma was preſent. Her heart beat violently, and was agitated with an anxiety the moſt delightful, when from behind a curtain, which concealed her from his ſight, ſhe ſaw the knight's agitation and the movement of his hand, to do what he deemed the laſt fatal act. But with a trembling hand he replaced the cup upon the altar, and he then ruſhed out of the room. Poor Emma! thy arms already expanded to preſs thy lover to thy heart, now dropped languidly down, as thou ſaweſt him flee, leaving the cup unexhauſted. A thouſand varying thoughts crowded into her mind. Hope and fear alternately aroſe. She blamed her own capricious curioſity. At length, in the agitation of her ſpirits, ſhe was affected with a head-ach, and was about to retire to reſt. At that moment, Lewis came in. When he heard Emma complain, a death-like paleneſs overſpread his

his countenance. Her father ſpoke with ſome pleaſantry of her head-ach. "No! ſhe is ill, very ill!" cried Sir Lewis, earneſtly. "Alas!" added he, in a low voice, "without hope of recovery." He then went out, with the looks and manner of one utterly in deſpair.

"Without hope of recovery!" repeated Emma, who had overheard his laſt words, with the bitterneſs of diſappointment. At this moment, ſhe found herſelf really ſo ill, that ſhe was obliged to go to bed.

Lewis, in the mean time, wandered wildly from place to place, in a ſtate of diſtraction and deſpair. He went into the garden, but before he had walked twenty paces down an alley, turned haſtily back. He then retired to his own apartment, threw himſelf firſt on one ſeat, then on another, then haſtened away to the apartments in which the company uſually aſſembled. He there began to talk to ſome perſon; but broke his diſcourſe ſuddenly off in the middle, then fixed his eye on another perſon, as if about to ſpeak, yet continued ſilent; then leaning his head on the ſhoulder of a third, exclaimed, "O God! have mercy on me!" When he went into the cloſet, where ſtood the fatal cup, he gazed with looks of diſtraction on the cup, wrung his hands in deſpair; deſperately ſeized the cup; but, as he had juſt brought it to his lips, again dropped it on the ground.

He thus paſſed two days in all the agonies of a parricide. He became every hour more diſtractedly wretched. He aſked of every perſon, and almoſt every minute, "how was Emma?" and turned away with indignation when told that ſhe was but ſlightly indiſpoſed.

The dreaded Sunday came. He went down from his own apartment; but dared not to enter that of Emma. He walked backward and forward in the corridor which led to it; liſtning from time to time with eager attention. The door was at laſt opened, and Gertrude appeared.

"Dear Gertrude! is ſhe ſtill alive?" "Thank God!" anſwered Gertrude, "her life is in no danger. Yet ſhe is worſe than when you retired laſt night," —"Worſe!" cried he, "Great God!" He then ran once more to the cloſet. He gazed for ſome moments on the fatal cup. In a fit of deſpair, "O God!" cried he. He then ſtruck his hands with violence on his forehead, and ran out. Meeting Gertrude as he paſſed; "She dies, She dies," cried he, "and I am her murderer."

He ruſhed down the ſtairs; took his horſe; rode impatiently out of the court; and gallopped away with an impetuoſity that aſtoniſhed and terrified all who beheld him.

Toward evening he had returned: and, in a tremulous voice, aſked the firſt perſon whom he met, "Is Emma dead?" He was quite enraged when the man coldly anſwered, "I did not know that ſhe was ill."

He entered the caſtle; and ſaw Emma ſtanding in the ſaloon, but pale, and with a caſt of melancholy in her countenance. The fatal cup was not now in the cloſet. Lewis paſſed the evening in ſuſpence between hope and fear. But when the caſtle clock ſounded the midnight hour, his joy roſe to an extravagance equal to that of his former diſtreſs. Emma's coldneſs, and the ironical politeneſs with which ſhe treated him, though ſtrikingly viſible to every perſon elſe, did not fix his notice. He returned to reſt, and enjoyed a refreſhing ſleep, with pleaſing dreams. But ſleep viſited not the bright eyes of Emma. She paſſed a reſtleſs night, amid the anxieties of fruſtrated hope, offended pride, love and hate, grief and reſentment. Next morning ſhe looked ſo ill, that it might have ſeemed as if there had been actually truth in the prophecy.

Lewis approached her with the triumphant air of happy, contented love. He now, for the firſt time, perceived her coldneſs and diſdain. He complained, intreated, became firſt piqued, and at laſt ſeriouſly angry, ſtill fluttering about her, conſtant as her ſhadow. He tried all, to regain her favour; but, in vain. There were, indeed, moments when ſhe ſeemed to treat him with an air of friendlineſs: but he no ſooner mentioned love, than her eyes became dark, and her brow clouded. Sir Lewis ſtrove for ſeveral days, but without ſucceſs, to diſcover the reaſon of this ſtrange aleration in her conduct.

About this time, Sir George Von Wallſdorff come into that neighbourhood. He ſoon drew the favourable notice of all the young ladies. In the emperor's court, where he ſpent much of his

his time, he had acquired a poliſh and elegance in his manners, by which he was diſtinguiſhed above moſt other young men of the ſame rank. He ſaw lovely Emma; and from that hour became one of her admirers. But he was not more ſucceſsful than his rivals, in overcoming that coldneſs which had been, ſince the time of her indiſpoſition, a diſtinguiſhing feature in her character.

Yet ſhe, in ſecret, paid dear for her affected coldneſs, and for the vanity of having fancied herſelf dearer even than life, to her lover. Her heart ſtill cheriſhed a ſecret tenderneſs for Lewis, which mingling with her ſpite againſt him, ſeverely puniſhed herſelf for the ſufferings which ſhe inflicted on him. In ſolitude, ſhe frequently ſhed ſuch tears as rarely fall from the eyes of a young beauty. True love ſhe judged to be, with many others, a dream, and ſeated in her heart, only to render her unhappy. She rejected all thoſe ſweet illuſions with which this ſentiment is made to embelliſh life. She called tenderneſs and paſſion to an account before the tribune of reaſon. She ſtrove to ſuppreſs in her breaſt, that voice, which for the ſake of the felicity of the human life, ſhould alone have the power to decide in affairs of love.

She thus became every day more reſerved and incommunicative. She walked in the moſt ſolitary places, and ſtrove to eſcape from every eye. Lewis ſtill followed, to complain of her coldneſs; but ſhe denied all pity to his complaints.

Von Wallſdorff alſo attended her walks, and endeavoured to find her alone, that he might explain to her the cauſe of his love, and, if poſſible, win her heart. In vain. She forbade him not to love her; but forbade that he ſhould intrude upon her retirement with the tale of his love.

In one of theſe ſolitary walks, Emma wandered on the banks of the Rhine. The wildneſs of the ſcene, and the noiſe of the river, diverted her imagination. She ſat herſelf down on the cliff of a rock, and gazed on the foaming and eddying waters as they paſſed. Attempting to approach ſtill nearer, ſhe put her foot on a ſtone which happened to be looſe; it gave way, and ſhe was plunged into the river.

She ſcreamed aloud; but was hurried down the ſtream. Within a few moments ſhe felt herſelf to be ſeized, detained, raiſed to the ſurface of the water. For ſome minutes her deliverer and herſelf ſtruggled hard with death. His cries drew others to the ſpot. They obtained aſſiſtance, and were brought to the bank alive.

"God be praiſed!" cried her preſerver, who ſtill held her in his arms. She revived; and perceived it to be Sir George Von Wallſdorff, to whom ſhe owed her life.

He attended her to the caſtle. She turned her eyes from time to time upon him, with looks of grateful emotion. She herſelf miſtook for love, the gratitude which ſwelled her heart. She fancied, that in him ſhe had found a man who loved her more than his life.

Their converſation, as they returned to the caſtle, turned upon the circumſtances of Emma's danger and eſcape. "How could you, Sir," ſaid ſhe, "throw yourſelf after me into the ſtream? How could you ſo eagerly riſk your own life, to ſave mine?"—"Without you, lovely Emma, how ſhould I have lived?" replied Von Wallſdorff, tenderly preſſing her hand. She would have anſwered, and would have told her lover, that he was alſo dear to her: but, at that moment, ſhe felt her heart to breathe a ſigh of regret, that it had not been Lewis that ſaved her life.

A ſlight fever, the conſequence of the accident, confined Emma, for ſome days, to her bed. Having, then, leiſure to examine the ſtate of her heart, ſhe found that gratitude and eſteem were properly her ſentiments towards Sir George; while of Lewis ſhe ſtill thought with ſomewhat of the tenderneſs of love. But this laſt ſentiment toward Lewis ſhe determined not to cheriſh in her heart. "It is my duty," ſaid ſhe, with downcaſt eyes, to Gertrude, "to prefer the man who has given me ſuch an unequivocal proof of his love." And then ſhe ſuffered a deep ſigh to eſcape from her boſom.

She preſſed her hand on her heart, with a look of determined firmneſs. From that inſtant, ſhe would no longer amuſe herſelf with the rival attentions of her lovers. Lewis was formally diſmiſſed. Sir George was openly received with favour. His ſofteſt ſmiles and tendereſt glances were returned by her. He was even ſometimes the ſubject of her tendereſt ſolitary reveries. But the

image

image of Lewis aroſe, at thoſe moments, much oftener upon her mind, and in a manner far more intereſting to her affections.

Lewis, a ſtranger to Emma's ſecret ſentiments, and marking only the mutual tenderneſs between her and Von Wallſdorff, relinquiſhed every hope; and, one day, while they ſat together, with an air of mutual intimacy, he approached, and with tears, cried—"Farewell, Emma!"—He offered her his hand, without truſting her eyes to meet his glance. She took it, and—unconſciouſly, it might be,—graſped it with a tender preſſure, then let it fall. Lewis inſtantly left her.

Emma affected a degree of gayety which ſecretly ſhe did not feel. Von Wallſdorff endeavoured to amuſe her. She ſmiled; but ſoon, again, became penſive. They walked in the garden, and tried little ſportive diverſions. They talked of happineſs; and Emma often aſſured Gertrude, that ſhe was happy, even while ſhe ſpoke with an air of melancholy; and that as ſoon as her father, who was then abſent, ſhould return, ſhe would avow her love to Von Wallſdorff, and give him her hand in marriage: "for, he loves me," ſaid ſhe, "he loves me more than his life."

Her father came, a few days after this, at full gallop into the court of the caſtle. His looks, when he entered the ſaloon, were expreſſive of the deepeſt uneaſineſs and vexation: "Father! what is the matter?" ſaid Emma.—"I am put to the ban of the empire!" cried the proud Lord of Hardenberg, in a tone of fury.

He had taken part in a conſpiracy againſt the power of the emperor. That conſpiracy was detected before its authors could carry it into execution. The chiefs, being princes of great power, eaſily eſcaped the ill conſequences of this fruſtrated treaſon; but the emperor determined to wreak his vengeance on the inferior barons who had taken part with them. "Sir George," ſaid the baron, "troops are already on their march to put the ban in execution againſt me. I am going to aſſemble my vaſſals. Baron Von Rothenberg comes to my aſſiſtance. You love my daughter. Receive her hand in marriage (at theſe words, Emma turned pale) and give me the aid of your own arm, and that of the armed followers whom you can muſter?" Von Wallſdorff ſtammered out ſomething about his friends at court, and the poſſibility of pacifying the emperor thro' their mediation. Mr Von Hardenberg ſaid, that he ſhould be glad of ſuch interpoſition in his behalf. "But in the mean time," continued he, "the Imperial banners advance: we muſt defend ourſelves till our peace can be made: you will not refuſe me your immediate aſſiſtance?"—Sir George replied, that if he ſhould take part in the rebellion, this might hurt the influence of his friends with the emperor; and Mr Von Hardenberg's pardon would become ſo much the more hopeleſs.—"That, alſo, may be," ſaid Von Hardenberg, "retire you then to your own eſtates; I can eaſily defend myſelf, here, without your aid: but my caſtle will, for the preſent, be no convenient reſidence for females. You love Emma. My chaplain will, this day, join your hands. To-morrow, let her accompany you home. Von Wallſdorff replied, that marriage with the daughter of a nobleman under the ban of the empire would infallibly ſubject him to the emperor's reſentment; and that, however deſirous of the felicity of being the huſband of Emma, he could not think of ruining himſelf by an indiſcreet marriage with her; which would both deſtroy his own intereſt for himſelf at court, and at the ſame time render him unable to ſerve Mr Von Hardenberg there. "The court! the favour of the emperor!" cried the baron, in a rage. "Holla! there! Saddle Mr Von Wallſdorff's horſes! Farewell, Sir Courtier! Make my reſpects to your friends at court; but let me never more find you within a league's diſtance of this caſtle: otherwiſe you ſhall feel that the ban of the empire has not unnerved the force of this arm!"

"The emperor will avenge me of your ingratitude," ſaid Sir George, with haughty irony. "I ſaved your daughter's life; and you diſmiſs me with inſult: but I ſcorn your threats. Fare you well! Von Hardenberg!" So ſaying, he left them, with an air of proud ſcorn; mounted his horſe, and rode away.

"What can this mean?" ſaid Emma, as ſoon as ſhe found herſelf alone. "Is this his love? He could, without heſitation, expoſe his own life to ſave mine. Yet, now, he even refuſes my hand for fear

fear of endangering his intereſt at court —an intereſt not indiſpenſably neceſſary to his welfare—by the alliance! Did he then not truly love me? Or, would Lewis have acted otherwiſe?"—She was now abſorbed in a reverie, from which the din of the preparations for defence could ſcarcely rouſe her.

The baron of Hardenberg's vaſſals aſſembled to defend their Lord. Stores of proviſions were laid in. The halls and other apartments of the caſtle were filled with men in arms. The fortifications were repaired. The fortreſs, and all around it, aſſumed every day more and more a military appearance.

One morning, came a troop of fifty men on horſeback, with waving banners. A trumpeter from the drawbridge requeſted admittance on their behalf to the caſtle. He was conducted to Emma's father, who happened to be with his daughter. "Sir Lewis D'Eichenlohe," ſaid the trumpeter, "learning that baron Von Hardenberg is in danger, ſends theſe fifty warriors to his aid; and would himſelf come if he did not fear that his preſence might be diſagreeable to the baron's daughter."

"Diſagreeable!" cried Emma, with animation; then ſuddenly ſtopping, ſhe turned away her head, while her countenance was ſuffuſed with a deep bluſh. "Your company is welcome!" cried the baron; "and we will receive Sir Lewis with the greateſt pleaſure." The drawbridge was again let down. The troop of auxiliaries was admitted: and with this ſeaſonable aid, Mr Von Hardenberg found himſelf in a condition to await the approach of the troops who were to execute the Imperial ban, with much leſs ſolicitude for the event. Three days after this, came Sir Lewis himſelf, with a ſecond troop of fifty men. Emma was too much afflicted to appear. The Imperial troops ſoon after beſieged the caſtle, and gave full employment to the activity of the knights within.

If all the defendants had fought with the intrepidity of Sir Lewis and Mr Von Hardenberg, not an individual of the enemy would have ſurvived the firſt ſally which the beſieged made upon them. They were diſperſed; but they afterward rallied; and were reinforced with a conſiderable number of auxiliary ſoldiers from the Imperial cities. At the ſame time appeared an Imperial reſcript, declaring all thoſe to be guilty of treaſon againſt the emperor who ſhould have joined baron Von Hardenberg, to reſiſt the execution of the decree againſt him, and ſhould not, upon this notice, retire with their vaſſals. This meaſure produced immediately the expected effect. Rothenberg, the baron's moſt intimate friend, retired with all his followers, from the caſtle.

Yet Lewis ſtill remained, and remained at the riſk of ſeeing his lands laid waſte, and himſelf put to the ban of the empire. Baron Von Hardenberg was, in conſequence of a wound, confined to his bed. D'Eichenlohe alone inſpired the garriſon with his own courage, and directed all the requiſite meaſures of defence. A meſſenger came with a formal ſummons to Lewis to abandon the caſtle of Hardenberg, on pain of ſeeing his own laid in ruins. "Though it ſhould be burnt to the ground," cried he, "this fortreſs I will not abandon."—In the evening, the diſtant ſky was reddened to the ſight by the flames of the caſtle of Eichenlohe. Lewis, from the windows of the Hardenberg, beheld the conflagration of his own caſtle and villages. A tear ſtole down his cheeks, but he uttered not a word.

"Take a hundred of our warriors, and cut in pieces thoſe miſcreant incendiaries," ſaid the baron. Lewis ſtarted up to go: but his eyes turned upon Emma: ſhe was oppreſſed with ſorrow: "No," ſaid he, "I cannot, for a moment, leave this ſpot: let them complete the miſchief.

Baron Von Hardenberg had at the Imperial court moſt powerful enemies, who had determined to conſummate his ruin. New troops marched againſt him, with an order ſigned by the emperor, to put him to death, if he ſhould be taken alive. The caſtle was now cloſely inveſted. The commander of the troops ſurrounding it, once more made offer to Sir Lewis of a pardon from the emperor, and the reſtitution of his property, if he would but abandon Hardenberg. The baron himſelf preſſed his gallant and generous ally to accept theſe conditions. Lewis looked on Emma.—"No: I will live or die with you!"—Emma felt, amid her diſtreſs, a delight to hear thoſe words from his lips. Her eyes met thoſe of her lover with an expreſſion

expreſſion of tenderneſs which more than compenſated for all the ſacrifices he had made. "What!" ſaid ſhe, "George riſked his life for me; yet refuſed my proffered hand. Lewis would have left me to die; and yet he truly loves me.

At laſt, the beſieged remained without ammunition or proviſions; and further reſiſtance was impoſſible. Baron Von Hardenberg prepared to eſcape ſecretly. But he wiſhed Lewis to ſtay behind, and ſtill ſecure his own pardon, by delivering up the caſtle—"No! I will not quit you; I will attend your flight." They paſſed with lights, through the ſecret apartments which Lewis had formerly explored. Emma ſtopping by the tomb of her great grandmother, exclaimed, "O Lewis! thy fidelity to us"——ſhe paufed——"has made amends for all," were the words which ſhe had almoſt added. Lewis threw himſelf at her feet, and ſaid, "Ah! that is little in compariſon with three days ſuffering which I underwent on your account, and which this ſcene recalls to my remembrance!"

As they iſſued out by the extremity of the ſubterraneous paſſage, they found a party of the enemy waiting in ambuſh to intercept them. "Here, Sir Lewis," ſaid the commander, "is your pardon, ſigned by the emperor: Von Hardenberg and his daughter are our priſoners."—"I ſcorn your pardon," cried Lewis, tearing the paper, "ſince they are not included in it."—"Take thy death, then, traitor!" ſaid the captain, aſſailing him. Lewis parrying the thruſts, quickly laid him dead at his feet. With headlong fury, he next attacked the followers, who came on to avenge their leader's fall. At laſt he prevailed; and thoſe who had not fallen by his arm, took to flight.

The fugitives were now on the brink of the Rhine. The boat was ready to convey them acroſs. That evening they were in ſafety beyond the reach of the emperor's power.—"Yes!" ſaid Emma, "life, fame, fortune, honours!—he loves me more than them all!" She was impatient to give him her hand: and he now thought all his ſufferings to be more than repaid.—Within a few months, ſome powerful friends made the peace of both Von Hardenberg and D'Eichenlohe with the emperor. They were reſtored to their domains: and the ſubſequent lives of Lewis and Emma were one long train of conjugal felicity.

Poetry.

For the Edinburgh Magazine.

SOLITUDE;

AN ELEGY.

By Mr D. Carey.

YE woods, thick branching, that exclude the day,
Oh, can you ſhield me from misfortune's dart?
Or you, ye ſtreams, bright as the ſolar ray,
Beſtow a balm to heal a wounded heart?

Nurſe of my happy youth, retirement kind!
To you I fly from folly, noiſe, and care,
In hopes thou'lt med'cine a diſtemper'd mind,
A body waſted by diſeaſe, repair.

For thou can'ſt ſteep in ſlumbers, from thy ſtore,
The heart all anguiſhing with every woe;
Or on the cheek pale, languid, bid once more
The living tints of health and beauty glow.

With thee, Hope whiſpers, I ſhall taſte relief,
As, liſtleſs laid by the tranſlucent ſtream,
I find a renovating pauſe from grief,
And all the cares that waſte my ſickly frame.

She tells me, I ſhall health and peace yet find,
All as amid your green retreats I rove,
All as I breathe the ſcented weſtern wind,
Or liſt to muſic's voice within the grove.

For who the haunts of nature can explore,
The ſhade where muſic melts on every ſpray,
The ſtream that never bluſh'd with human gore,
And ſtill be loſt to peace and pleaſure's ſway?

Then take me to thy haunt of bliſsful reſt,
And ſoothe my ſoul with light fantaſtic dreams,
As thou wert wont, when oft thy charms I trac'd,
While life was new, and bright its morning beams.

Parent of every calm delight, ere woe
Tranſfix'd my heart, and bad each comfort flee;
Ere fate thy charms compell'd me to forego,
What joys, what raptures have I prov'd with thee!

Sweet

Sweet Solitude! Oh, wilt thou deign once more
To ſtroud me in thy ſweetly-lenient ſhade;
Permit me in thy ear my griefs to pour,
And on thy boſom lay my aching head?

Say, wilt thou teach to wander from its woe,
This penſive heart to ſorrow long a prey,
As in the ſhade I hear ſweet muſic flow,
As down the vale at ev'ning hour I ſtray?

Or can'ſt thou condeſcend again to guide
My wandering foot, where Flora's ſweets exhale,
What time the morning gilds the mountain's ſide,
And the mead's incenſe ſcents the vernal gale?

Yes thou wilt every gloomy thought beguile,
And bid the holy calm pervade my breaſt:
The dappl'd dawn ſhall ſee me riſe and ſmile,
And ſhadowy night bring calm oblivious reſt.

Ev'n now, as o'er this vale, alike remote
From proud ambition and wild war's annoy,
My devious ſtep I bend, and loſt in thought,
Anticipate each future ſcene of joy;

Methinks no more I feel affliction's power
Corrode my heart, and quench its youthful fires;
Whilſt fairy fancy plumes her wing once more,
And flies to paint whate'er fond hope inſpires.

Led by their lore, I think what joy 'twill be,
As ſetting day illumes the village ſpires,
With ſolitude to wander on the lea,
And catch poetic hints, poetic fires.

With thee, ſweet ſolitude, the Muſes dwell;
With thee, how ſmooth the hours will glide along;
While in your ſhades I tune the vocal ſhell,
And to thy thouſand charms devote the ſong.

And, many a long, long year of pleaſure fled,
How ſweet without a ſigh, without a tear,
To lay me down among th' unhonour'd dead,
Whilſt ſhepherd-ſwains with flowers beſtrew my bier.

O, then forgive me, ye who fondly tread
The field of fame, if here I lov'd to ſtray;
If I preferr'd this walk, with wild thyme ſpread,
To your enſanguin'd path and brighter way.

Nor blame me, ye who chace the phantom joy,
And, ye who watch the turn of fortune's wheel,
Tho' early from your rounds I choſe to fly,
And calmly ſought unſeen thro' life to ſteal.

For the Edinburgh Magazine.

MORNING:

AN ODE.

THEN, doſt thou come! and bring along
The ſeaſon ſweet of ſacred ſong?
Welcome, mildly-bluſhing dawn!
'Tis joy with thee to tread the lawn;
With thee, to ſkirt the hanging grove
Where muſic, from each ſpray,
Wild mingling, melts in notes of love,
And falls and dies away;

And, then, with freſh delight purſue
Celeſtial footſteps on the dew.
Here, fancy, when ſhe left the bound,
Her fulleſt influence breath'd around:
Now o'er yon' wood-crown'd, cliffy hill—
With ever varying gait
Whence tumbles many a tinkling rill—
The goddeſs lingers yet!

Hail, mighty pow'r! who bid'ſt the ſong
Be ſad, and flow, or bold and ſtrong!
Thou melt'ſt in heav'n-born pity's eye;
Thou heav'ſt in melancholy's ſigh;
Thou ſwell'ſt the note of wildeſt woe;
Or by thy magic art,
Command'ſt unmeaſur'd joys to flow,
And pour'ſt them round the heart.

But chief when, in the eaſtern ſkies,
Thou ope'ſt O Morn! thine angel eyes,
By nodding grove, and mountain hoar,
Or ſwelling river's ſounding ſhore,
She loves, with potent Truth to rove,
And gem, with ſweets, his crown;
And, mingling rays with his, improve,
And dignify her own.

Hark! holy, ſolemn ſounds, I hear
Slow floating on the genial air—
Immortal pow'rs! your accents roll
With awful grandeur o'er the ſoul;
From yonder rocky heights, ye ſay,
Oh thou! who ſtrays alone,
Great Nature will her ſons repay
With treaſures all her own.

How oft' thy rapt, aſtoniſh'd ear,
The hallow'd ſtrains of heav'n ſhall hear!
How oft', by lonely cave and dell,
Thy fir'd, impaſſion'd heart, ſhall ſwell!
And bid its native artleſs note
Wildly-enthuſiaſt flow;
And feel, as echo makes it float,
A more extatic glow!

Oft' times, at ſuch an early hour,
Great ſouls have felt th' inſpiring pow'r;
And ſoar'd, in fervour's fiery car,
Above the higheſt road of ſtar:
Now ſhining, in the heav'nly clime,
With pure, unborrow'd light,

And

And, victors o'er the pow'r of Time,
Shall burn for ever bright.

To few has fav'ring heav'n assign'd
That fire of soul, that force of mind;
Yet all who watch, on hill or lawn,
The dewy spring of early dawn,
Shall feel spontaneous thought arise
Congenial to the scene;
And learn for ever to despise
The little and the mean;

And still, as o'er some devious way
With toil-disdaining feet they stray,
Shall pause, and bright'ning prospects spy,
With contemplation's heav'n-cast eye;
While all the soul expands, and flies
Where virtue points the road;
And, in her spotless hand, dare rise
To meet her parent *God*.

Inverleithen. *J. T.*

For the Edinburgh Magazine.

THE FAIRE EUPHEME:

A BALLAD.

Part I.

IN days of yore, in Scotland's prime,
Livt Gratney Erle of Marre:
His prowess and his highe descente,
By fame were founded farr.
For countryes right, in bluidy fighte
He always led the woun;
And if the King a friend did truste,
Erle Gratney was the man.

His castle rearede its flintye browe,
On rocks, that stem the Forthe;
And sun-burnte hills, with heather crown'd,
Defend it from the north.
His warlyke clann, a trusty bande,
Possessed the plaines arounde;
To guard their chief, they kepte within
His bugle's rollinge sound.

The royale Malcolme's archers bolde,
He still to conquest led;
Though sixtye years had o'er him roll'de
He oft in battle bled.
His onlye son, Constantine hight,
Attendede on the courte,
His daughter's luve and tendere care
Was nowe his chief supporte.

The faire Eupheme was beautyes self,
Her skyne was soft as downe,
Her lippes were rose-buds wet with dewe,
And hayre of fylbert browne.
Though many a noble leman sued,
She neir had fancied one;
For love with coldness still she viewede,
And wish'de to live alone.

In summer-tyde, with lawless pow'r,
Donaldbayne's base-borne sone
Rais'd up rebellion in the southe,
With helpe of Setone's claun.

Like mightye waters rushing wide,
They drove o'er hills and plaines,
As Forthe, when swell'd with troubled floods,
Its native bankes disdaines.

Now newes was broughte into the Erle,
That Donald's pow'r drewe neare,
Who thoughte to take him be surprize,
For open warre they feare;
Whereat he call'd his armie forthe,
And bickerede fast awaye,
To stop the rebels flye designe
Withouten more delaye.

His deare Eupheme, he thus bespoke,
Before he rode awaye,
"If victorye crownes our arms, we shall
"Returne by breake of daye.
Betimes, up to the highest towr,
Faire Eupheme went next morne,
And watchede and listenede, till she hearde
Her father's distante horne.

Erle Gratney, on his dappled steed,
Came scowring o'er the playne;
Full fiftye knightes, of high degree,
Rode proudlye in his trayne!
Loude blewe the horne before the gate;
The warders ken the call,
And straighte the Erle and all his men
Assemble in the hall.

Amongst them came a stranger knighte,
Righte portly was his meine;
His helmet, ravenne plumes adorn'd,
And's sash was Kendale greene.
His youthfule cheeke with purple healthe,
Burnede like the flamynge west,
His eyes spoke fire, and gracefule wavede,
His hayre in ryngiets dreist.

Adowne his manlye shoulders broade,
A swordlets belt was slunge.
And pendante from his breastplate bryghte,
A holy roode their hunge.
"Now, binde the Traitor, binde him harde,"
The angrye Erle cryed,
"He fall be brought to rue the daye
"He dide our powr deride."

Now, they have bounde his armes so harde,
The corde has cutte his skyne,
They led him to the castle keepe,
And fiercely thrust him in.
Then up bespoke the stalwart Erle,
And a chieftain bold was he,
"Lets pass this nyghte in joyannce greate,
"For this our victorye.

"I shall to horse by breake of daye,
"And fast to Falkiande speede,
"To tell my Liege he now may gete
"This Traytor, Setone's head."
Now in the hall, the bluid-red wine
In cuppes of gilte went rounde;

The

The knightes reclined, in waſſallinge
Their cares and dangers drowne.

The towrs ſhook with rife mynſtrelſye,
The courtes blazede red with lighte,
And all, ſave Eupheme, quite forgot
The woefule ſtrangere knighte.
"Can he a traytor be," ſhe ſaid,
"Whoſe face betokens truth?
"And ſhall my father falſelye kille
"This peerleſs ſtrangere youthe?"

When chantyclier, with ſhrilly pipe,
Begane to wake the daye,
The Erle and his followeres
Preparede to ride awaye.
But firſt he's gi'en to faire Eupheme
The caſtle-keys in haſte,
And chargede her, by her maidenhoode,
To keep the ſtranger faſte.

He little thoughte the foeman bold
Would ſoon again be free,
As little that his daughter deare
Would bear him companye.
What dolefule feuds and endleſs care,
From diſobedience ſpringe,
And love obeyed 'gainſt dutyes voyce,
Behoves me now to ſinge.

They had not raughte Lochleven's towrs,
Nor gained the Lomondes highte,
When Eupheme went, and comforte ſpoke
Unto the Traytor knighte.
They had not raughte the greenwoode ſhades,
Nor yet the holy tree,
When Eupheme's tender hearte had vowede
To ſet the priſoner free.

But yet her parent's ſtern beheſte,
Still echoed in her eare;
And then her pitye urged her on
And now ſhe ſtopt in feare.
"Sir Knight," ſhe ſaid, "I cannot thinke
"To reſt in paintede bowr,
"Whilſt you in ſorrow paſs the time
"Within this dreary towr.

"Faire dame," ſaid he, "no death I drie,
"Nor yet thy father's hate:
"So I but ſee that comelye face,
"I'll welcome my ſad fate.
"My father, chief of Setone's race,
"A race of high renowne,
"Fightes for Donaldbayne's rightfule heire,
"Whilſt yours would keep him downe.

"Then welcome death, I'll yielde my breathe,
"At cruel Marre's commande;
"I would not flee awaye from thee
"For all my father's lande.
"Were you in Setone Caſtle once,
"And I were bye your ſide,
"I would not mind the hardeſte fate
"That could my youthe betide.

The pearlye tears roll'd down her cheek,
And tremblede in her eye,
Full long to hide her forwarde love,
She baſhfullye did trye;
"I'll dreſs myſelf in pages robe,
"And travel by your ſyde;
"For thee, I'll leave my father's hall,
"Whate'er may us betide."

He took her tremblyng to his arms,
And preſſed her to his hearte;
He kiſſed her lylie hand, and vowede
They never more ſhould parte.
The morne had ſcarcelye breathed abroade,
Or lark had ſcarede the nyghte,
When Eupheme, hid in boyes attire,
Set free the ſtrangere knighte.

They lightlye tripped the hall along,
And ſlowlye turned the key;
And o'er the bridge, and down the playne,
With breathleſs ſteppes they flee.
Her hearte was greate, and ſtillſhe thoughte,
A paſſing echo tolde,
"This is the laſt, the onlye time,
"You ſhall theſe tow'rs behold.

(To be continued.)

For the Edinburgh Magazine.

VERSES

ON THE DEATH OF MISS A—— S——.

DOES beauty's ſmile with kindred rapture warm,
Or win your hearts to Virtue's pleaſing ſway?
Ah! think how frail, how fleeting ev'ry charm!
Ah! think how ſoon our deareſt joys decay!

Fair as the roſe-bud, op'ning to the view,
Half-veil'd in leaves, its bluſhing charms diſplays,
So fair the bloom on Agnes' count'nance drew,
So ſweetly modeſt, ſhunn'd the ardent gaze.

Clear as the brooks o'er pebbled channels roll,
The ſky's ſoft ſplendour mingling with the ſtream,
Her radiant eyes diſplay'd her ſpotleſs ſoul,
And heav'n's mild luſtre ſparkl'd in their beam.

Could thy dear image in our breaſt decay,
Nor beauty more our ſtreaming homage claim,
Still on our heart would ſorrow keenly prey,
While ſtill we mourn'd thee under Virtue's name.

Oh! were my heart with equal fervour fir'd!
Could hopeleſs grief a kindred grace convey!

Then

Then ſhould my verſe, where ev'ry charm conſpir'd,
A faithful picture of her mind pourtray.

As, at the influence of the noon-tide beam,
From cryſtal lakes unſullied vapours riſe;
Her boſom, warm'd with pure Devotion's flame,
Exhal'd its grateful incenſe to the ſkies.

No trivial cares diſtreſs'd her peaceful ſoul,
Nor were her hopes to paltry pleaſure giv'n;
Her breaſt was calm'd by Reaſon's kind controul,
And all her feelings harmoniz'd with heav'n.

Like ſome bright ſeraph, bent on deeds benign,
From bliſs beſtow'd her pureſt raptures roſe:
Her manners, ſweeten'd with a grace divine,
Enhanc'd the joys, a generous friendſhip knows.

Soft as the gales, that fan the noon-tide glow,
Each rending pang her ſoothing accents heal'd;
But ſtill her boſom heav'd with others' woe,
Her own in pious dignity conceal'd.

Life's diſtant ſcenes, while fondly ſhe ſurvey'd,
Each inward charm gave tranſport to the view;
And ev'ry form, the op'ning world diſplay'd,
New virtues wak'd, and promis'd raptures new.

Ah! had our pray'rs her riſing ſoul detain'd
On haſty wings theſe bliſsful forms had flown!
And, chang'd the ſcenes deluſive hope had feign'd,
How many pangs had wounded virtue known!

Heav'n ſaw her breaſt with ſacred ardour glow,
Nor damp'd the joys, that hallow'd ſource ſupplies:
Mature for bliſs, ſhe quits a world of woe,
To taſte theſe raptures genuine in the ſkies.

YETHOLM, 10*th Aug.* 1802. *A. S.*

For the Edinburgh Magazine.

ELEGIAC STANZAS,

ON VISITING CASTLE KENNEDY, IN WIGTON-SHIRE.

YON aged pile I penſively ſurvey,
Which rears its ſhatter'd head above the trees,
Around whoſe ſides the ivy's tendrils ſtray,
And wither'd wild graſs whiſtles in the breeze.

Oft have Britannia's warlike ſons retir'd
Within theſe walls, in triumph from the field;
With honour, liberty, and country, fir'd,
They knew to conquer, and they ſcorn'd to yield.

To leave their halls no more ſhall they rejoice,
When country calls them to expel her foes;
In vain the trumpet elevates her voice,
With loudeſt notes to break their deep repoſe.

Before the gloomy foe of human-kind,
Muſt the proud conqueror and the conquer'd bow,
He with fame's wreath the heroes head ſhall bind,
But ſtrikes the laurels from the villain's brow.

Beauty no more within theſe mould'ring walls,
Is heard to breathe love's ſadly-pleaſing ſtrain,
Which the ſoft heart of heedleſs youth enthralls,
Makes beat with rapture, or to throb with pain.

Theſe groves now feel the genial breath of ſpring,
Bend their green branches to the healthful gale,
The ſportive ſwallow flits upon the wing,
And the ſweet ſongſters warble thro' the vale.

Amid theſe beauteous bowers I oft have ſtray'd,
And all around was harmony and joy,
When no perplexing care my breaſt affail'd,
But hope with ſweeteſt dreams allur'd the boy.

Ah! deareſt ſcenes, can you no ſolace yield?
At firſt you bade my beating boſom glow;
And will you not that tortur'd boſom ſhield,
In ſweet remembrance lull the the pang of woe?

Ah! could the peaceful moments now return,
Which are with life's fair morn for ever gone!
My breaſt with pleaſure's pureſt flame would burn,
And joy would mingle with life's parting groan.

No friend to chear my melancholy hours,
On life's rough road I wander now forlorn,
Yet hope her potion in my boſom pours,
In accents ſweet "forbear" ſhe ſays, "to mourn.

"Child

"Child of misfortune, why need'ſt thou complain,
Ere long no torture ſhall thy breaſt infeſt;
Soon ſhall the grave thy ſorrows all contain,
The grave, in which "the weary are at reſt."

"Nor in the gloomy manſions of the grave,
Shall the fell monarch, ever, thee detain;
His bands thou'lt burſt, infernal malice brave,
Wilt riſe to worlds where joys eternal reign." *W.*

For the Edinburgh Magazine.

SONNET.

THE riſing ſun now with his orient beams
From labour's eye-lids chaſes balmy ſleep:
From broken ſlumbers and diſtracting dreams,
I ſtarting wake; but ah! I wake to weep.

Now o'er the dewy fields I heedleſs ſtray,
Now penſively the tuneful grove explore;
Tho' muſic ſtreams from ev'ry trembling ſpray,
'Tis loſt to me—Monimia is no more!

Oft, fainted maid! at morning's roſy hour
Up yonder ſteep together would we toil;
Then brooding ſorrow own'd thy magic pow'r,
And anguiſh vaniſh'd at thy potent ſmile.
But why of pleaſures paſt thus idly rave?
I'll go and drop a tear upon thy grave.

TREBOR.

For the Edinburgh Magazine.

THE ADVICE OF A FRIEND.

WHEN Bacchus on earth with our fathers did ſtay,
He gave an advice, which we're bound to obey:—
"Ye mortals," he ſaid, "and ſons of the earth,
"Who with ſorrow contend from the hour of your birth,
"Old Jove now, in pity, to wretches he made,
"Has ſent you a plant from Olympus's ſhade!"
The plant was the vine, and the fruit that it bears
Is our antidote yet againſt earth-born cares.
The big-bellied god, when the vintage came on,
Preſided, and taught them the uſe of the tun,
Sat aſtride on a but, the chorus he'd join,
And adviſ'd them to plunge all their ſorrows in wine!

Ye lovers, ſtill ſobbing, like timorous *deers*
Who run off with the dart and bedew it with tears,
Do *Celia's* eyes ſparkle like wine? I would aſk;
Are her lips ſuch live ruby as flows from the caſk?
No longer theſe ſorrows fantaſtic endure,
But liſten to me, and I'll give a cure:
Seize the weapon, which newly transfixes your heart,
Tear the barb quickly out, and with wine waſh the part;
This at firſt will inflame it, and ſharpen the pain;
But the cure to complete, you muſt waſh it again,
Your boſoms to free, and the fetters untwine,—
Remember at ſun-ſet to ſteep them in wine.

If love, fame, or profit, induce you to write!
And bear you away in poetical flight;
If you ardently wiſh for the Helicon ſpring
Where your Muſe could imbibe inſpiration to ſing,
With a friend that is mellow, yet ſtaunch to his cup,
In converſe and claret the ev'ning wind up;
Let that be your Helicon,—only take care,
That your glaſſes be crown'd with the healths of the fair;
No rhyme-inſpired poet good claret will ſcorn,
Even Phœbus your patron may join you next morn,
Thus to rouze your invention, your wit to refine,
Let the Muſe clear her voice with a bumper of wine!

Ye ſoldiers, who conquer in Liberty's cauſe,
And maintain with the ſword our religion and laws,
To whoſe boſoms the fire of your anceſtors comes,
With the ſhrieks of the trumpet and roll of the drums;
As your labours have lately been crown'd with ſucceſs,
And Fame left the field at the news of the peace;
By the bottle you ſtill a new conqueſt may gain,
And ſurvive at the board amongſt heaps of the ſlain.
Into weapons of cryſtal let ſwords change their ſhape;
And brandiſh them dyed with the blood of the grape:
Since ſorrow and anger with thirſt may combine,
Let us plunge them all three in a goblet of wine!

When

When Boreas from Zembla his hurricanes leads,
And the billows around raiſe their ponderous heads,
The brave ſons of Neptune confeſs that the bowl,
Even then, can inſpire with new courage the ſoul:
Or when Liberty, thron'd on the *Western Rock*,
Points out conqueſt to Britons thro' thunder and ſmoke,
Her ſquadrons, purſuing, come up with the foe,
And fight till his pride with his flag is laid low;
Having conquer'd, their ſpirits and ſtrength to ſupport,
Their toaſt is "The Captain that brings us to *Port!*"
Ye generous tars, after breaking the line,
Try your ſtrength now in cracking a bottle of wine!

Ye patriots, who manage the helm of the ſtate,
Or with eloquent boldneſs conduct the debate,
Hear the prayers of us Britons, who humbly intreat
To lay their petitions and woes at your feet:—
"Let Wine now *sans* duty, come ſafe to our ſhores,
"The *Land of the Vineyards* has open'd its ſtores;
"Since your great predeceſſors in office reſign,
"(Who always have put a due value on wine.)
"We doubt not that A——n, wiſhing to quench
"The drought of us Britons, made Peace with the French!"
Let us jovially join—the advice was divine!
To drag ſurly Care to a bumper of wine!!!

July 4th 1802. *P.*

BOOKS AND PAMPHLETS PUBLISHED IN LONDON IN JULY 1802.

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The Faſhionable Friends, a Comedy, performed at Drury Lane. Written by the late Lord Orford, 2s. 6d.

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A Compendium of the Law of Nations, founded on the Treaties and Cuſtoms of the Modern Nations of Europe. By M. Martens, Profeſſor of Public Law at Gottengen. Tranſlated and enlarged by W. Cobbett, 10s. 6d.

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Medical and Phyſical Journal, conducted by Drs. Bradley, Batty, and Nochder, vol. VII. 15s. 6d.

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The

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The Dipping Well and Drinking Well. Painted by Maria Spilſbury, and engraved by Goadley.

LITERARY *and* SCIENTIFIC NOTICES, FOREIGN *and* DOMESTIC.

A Very ſplendid work on the Antiquities of *Vilia Italica*, an ancient town in Spain, has juſt been publiſhed in Paris, by M. de la Borde, in large folio, with beautiful repreſentations of the fine Moſaicks of that town. The ſame Gentleman is on the eve of viſiting Spain, for the purpoſe of publiſhing, in the ſame elegant ſtyle, all the antiquities of that country.

The Farmer's Boy, by Robert Bloomfield, together with the Memoirs and Poſthumous Works of Mrs Robinſon, have appeared at Paris in the French language.

Mr Gerhard has diſcovered, in the courſe of his Galvanic experiments, that nickel combined with zinc produces the ſame effect as ſilver and copper.

Accounts have been received from a French Officer in garriſon at Lodi, which ſtate, that a very conſiderable ſhock of an earthquake

earthquake had been felt there, at forty minutes paſt ten in the morning; that many chimnies were thrown down; and all the people were ſeen at prayers in the ſtreets. The town of Crema was alſo demoliſhed by the earthquake, and the village of Menguin, (forty miles diſtant from Lodi) where there was a fine lake, about ten miles in circumference, has been ſwallowed up, and not a ſingle perſon has been ſaved, nor does a ſingle veſtige of the village remain.

An experiment is now making at Paris on the method employed in Egypt for white-waſhing walls. The proceſs conſiſts in the addition of a few handfuls of marine ſalt to a quintal of lime, mixed for uſe. It poſſeſſes the advantage of being attended with very little expence, of killing inſects, and deſtroying the miaſmata, which penetrate walls frequently to a very great depth.

An account has lately been received from China of an improved method of cutting glaſs. This proceſs is performed by means of hot irons, which are ſaid to be far ſuperior to the uſe of the diamond, and will always ſucceed when that jewel fails *.

The Emperor of Ruſſia has lately preſented, by the hands of the Ruſſian Ambaſſador at Paris, a ſuperb diamond ring of great value, to the learned Dr Hager, as a compliment for his "*Explanation of the Elementary characters of the Chinese Language.*" It is wonderful, that this learned work, which has procured for its author the patronage of the French government, and the attention of ſeveral foreign potentates, has not received the ſmalleſt patronage from the Eaſt India Company, nor excited any public notice in the Engliſh Univerſities.

A life of Chaucer, by Mr Godwin, in 2 vols. 4to. is at preſent in the preſs, and will be publiſhed early in the enſuing winter. Chaucer was the firſt writer in the Engliſh language who deſerved the name of a poet, and may be conſidered as the founder of our language, and the father of our poetry. Mr Godwin, therefore, will treat of the origin of Poetry in the different countries of Europe. And as Chaucer took a very leading part, in the political as well as in the literary world, we may expect from Mr Godwin many curious elucidations of the politics and hiſtory of his times.

The firſt cargo of the Egyptian Antiquities taken from the French army at Alexandria, arrived a few days ago at the Britiſh Muſeum. It conſiſts of an immenſe ſtone bath, covered on the inſide and outſide, with hieroglyphics; of a maſſy ſtone coffin, inſcribed with hieroglyphics; of a prodigious hand in ſtone, part of a ſtatue, which muſt have been one hundred and fifty feet in height; of two fine marble ſtatues in Roman habits; and of a great variety of ancient Egyptian ſculptures, highly curious, but much defaced by the ravages of time.

A new Edition of Mr Lurr's novel, entitled "Splendid Miſery," will be publiſhed in the courſe of this month.

The Rev. Mr Henly is preparing for publication a new poetical verſion of Tibullus's Elegies.

A new edition of the late Rev. J. Maſon's Treatiſe on Self-Knowledge, accompanied with a Life of the Author, is at preſent in the preſs.

Mr Leſlie, the tranſlator of Buffon and Montbeliard's Ornithology, has now in the preſs, a work, in which he controverts Dr Herſchel's opinions concerning the Sun's heat.

M. Denon's long expected travels in Upper and Lower Egypt, in company with General Deſaix's diviſion of the French army, is at length publiſhed; and is the moſt magnificent work which has appeared in modern times. A tranſlation has been undertaken under the inſpection of Mr Arthur Aikin, and the plates are to be re-engraved by the beſt Engliſh artiſts. The original work ſells in London for twenty-two pounds, but it is ſuppoſed that the quarto edition of the tranſlation will be afforded for about five guineas, and the 8vo. edition for about two guineas. Moſt of the Egyptian Antiquities mentioned above, are repreſented and deſcribed in this work.

A Phyſiological Society has been inſtituted at Birmingham, for the purpoſe of improving its members in Natural Philoſophy, by lecture, experiment, and diſcuſſion. Each member is to lecture in rotation, on ſome ſubject in Natural Philoſophy.

The

* This method is by no means new. It has long been adopted by lapidaries and others, in preference to the diamond; and I have often uſed it with ſucceſs in cutting out circular pieces of glaſs for the object-lenſes of refracting teleſcopes. The method of uſing the hot iron is this: A mark is made with a file on the edge of the glaſs which is to be cut; the point of the hot iron is then applied to this mark; the glaſs immediately cracks, and in whatever direction you carry the hot iron, the glaſs will crack in the ſame direction. It requires, however, conſiderable practice and care, before the operator arrive at great dexterity in the management of the hot iron. For it will ſometimes happen, for want of proper attention, that the glaſs will crack in a wrong direction.

D. B.

The Literary and Philoſophical Society of Newcaſtle intend to eſtabliſh a lecture-ſhip, on the ſubject of Natural and Experimental Philoſophy.

Mr Dageley has in great forwardneſs, a ſelection of Antique Gems; to comprife the moſt admired and beautiful ſpecimens of the Greek Sculptors, and chiefly ſuch as have not been made public.

A new work on Engliſh compoſition will ſoon be publiſhed by the Rev. Mr Scraggs, of Buckingham.

Dr Stanger is about to publiſh a work on the neceſſity and means of preventing contagion in the Metropolis.

Mr W. Cloſe has made a great variety of Experiments, in order to aſcertain the beſt method of making ink, which ſhall not be diſcharged by time or chemical proceſſes. As the reſult of his enquiries, he commends for black ink, "Oil of Lavender, 200 grains; copal, in powder, 25 grains; lamp black, from two and a half, to three grains; with the aſſiſtance of a gentle heat, diſſolve the copal in the oil of lavender, in a ſmall glaſs phial, and then mix the lamp black with the ſolution on any ſmooth ſurface." The compoſition is to be put into a bottle, and kept from the air. If, after a few hours, it be found too thick, it muſt be diluted with a little oil of lavender, oil of turpentine, or ſpirit of wine. For red ink; "Take oil of lavender, 120 grains; copal, in powder, 17 grains; red ſulphuriat of mercury, 60 grains."

Mr R. Duppa, and Mr H. Howard, will ſoon publiſh a ſelection of Outlines, from the moſt celebrated Antique Gems; with Remarks, Critical and Explanatory.

Mr W. Bullock, of Portland-ſtreet, has invented a new draw-back lock, for houſe doors.

Count Joſeph Truſches, (who poſſeſſes perhaps the moſt valuable collection of pictures of any individual in the world,) has publiſhed propoſals for the eſtabliſhment of a Gallery of Paintings in London, by removing this collection of pictures from Vienna to London.

Mr Dumont, of Geneva, has been printing at Paris, in French, from the MSS of Mr Bentham, in Engliſh, in three vols. 8vo. two treatiſes, the one on Civil, the other on Penal Legiſlation.

Dr Biſſet of Chelſea, is publiſhing a hiſtory of the reign of George III. He is alſo engaged in the compoſition of a novel, abounding in poignant literary ſatire, and, in vigorous ridicule of many of the follies and affectations which now mark the face of ſocial life in England.

A correſpondent of the Agricultural Society, lately inſtituted at *Poitiers*, has accidentally diſcovered a preventive againſt the deſtruction of corn by inſects. Having occaſion, about 10 years ago, to repair the floor of his granary, he uſed the timbers *Italian poplars* for that purpoſe. Before that time, his granary was infeſted with weevils almoſt every year, in ſpite of every precaution; and ſince laying down the poplars, he has not ſeen one. Additional experiments have confirmed this diſcovery.

Mr Davis, editor of Maclaurin's Fluxions, &c. will publiſh Part I. of a new edition of the *Principia* on the firſt of September 1802. This edition is to be compriſed in ſix parts, price 4s each, and to be publiſhed on the firſt of each month, till completed. The work is to contain an elegant Portrait and Life of the Author; *Motte's* Engliſh tranſlation of the Principia; the Laws of the Moon's motion, according to Gravity; and *Newton's* Syſtem of the world. We hope the editor will endeavour to make the Life as nearly authentic as poſſible. The important biographical ſketches of that great man, now in the poſſeſſion of the public, ſeem to be incorrect. For inſtance, Dr Hutton, in his Dictionary at the end of the article Binomeal Theorem, ſays this theorem, "is engraved on his (Newton's) monument in Weſtminſter Abbey, as one of his greateſt diſcoveries." But a correſpondent has mentioned, in the laſt number of the "Monthly Magazine," that he has carefully examined Newton's monument in Weſtminſter Abbey, but could not perceive on it any traces of the Binomeal Theorem.

Mr Auguſtus B. Woodward has lately offered to the public, "Conſiderations on the Subſtance of the Sun." This work is divided into ſeven parts. 1. An hiſtorical review of the opinions of the ancients on the ſubſtance of the Sun. 2. A conciſe examination of the opinions of the moderns on the particular nature of the Sun. 3. The author uſes the term *Electron* to denote that peculiar ſubſtance, generally called electricity, or, the electric fluid; and his own hypotheſis, *that the substance of the Sun is electron*. 4. He gives an hiſtorical account of electric diſcoveries. 5. The Author enumerates ſome of the moſt remarkable phenomena in which electron, *as a substance*, is obſerved to be preſent. 6. He next proceeds to adduce thoſe conſiderations, which are chiefly analogical, that lead him to conclude, that the ſubſtance of the ſun is *electron*. 7. The ſeventh and laſt diviſion contains ſuggeſtions how to ſubject this hypotheſis to the teſt of direct experiment.

MONTHLY

Monthly Register for August 1802.

FOREIGN INTELLIGENCE.

FRANCE.

PARIS, *Aug.* 1.—*Message, July* 29.

ACTS OF GOVERNMENT.

The CONSUL *of the* REPUBLIC *to the* CONSERVATIVE SENATE.

"SENATORS,

ON the 6th of May last, the Tribunate expressed a wish that a striking pledge of National Gratitude might be made to the First Consul.—That wish was applauded by the Legislative Body, and repeated by a *spontaneous* movement of the *Citizens*. The Senate raised its thoughts still higher; and in the accomplishment of that wish, it hoped to find the sure means of giving to the Government that stability which alone can multiply the resources of the nation, establish confidence without credit within, inspirit Allies, discourage enemies, extinguish the flames of war, permit the enjoyment of the fruits of Peace, and leave to future wisdom the task of executing every thing that can be conceived as contributing to the happiness of a Free People. The First Consul was of opinion that the circumstances of his first nomination prevented him from accepting the proposed re-election, unless it be specifically conferred by the French People, thereby giving a proof of their attachment to, and permanent confidence in, the Magistrate who had been the object of their first choice. In this manner we have thought it our duty to carry into execution the idea of the Senate. The French People have given their answer; the Government has received from almost all the Departments, the acts which contain the expression of the will of the people. It is to the Senate we have thought in this new case, that it belongs to collect and promulgate the wishes of the people. We have therefore ordered the Minister of the Interior to place at the disposal of the Senate, the Registers in which those Votes are contained. We invite the Senate to take those measures which shall seem to its wisdom the most proper, for the purpose of stating the result.

"The Second Consul,

(Signed) "CAMBACERES."

PARIS, *August* 4.

The Audience of the Corps Diplomatique yesterday, was interrupted by the introduction of the Conservative Senate.

Citizen *Barthelemy*, the President, spoke as follows:—

"*Citizen First Consul*,

"The French, grateful for the immense services you have rendered to them, wish that the First Magistracy of the State should be irrevocably placed in your hands. In thus conferring it upon you for Life, they only express the opinion of the Senate, as stated in its *Senatus Consultum* of the 8th of May. The nation, by this solemn act of gratitude, confides to you the task of consolidating our institutions.

"A new career commences for the First Consul—after prodigies of valour and military talents, he has terminated the War, and obtained every where the most honourable conditions of Peace. The French People under his auspices have assumed the attitude and character of true greatness. He is the pacificator of nations, and the Restorer of France—His name alone is a tower of strength.

"Already an Administration of less than three years has almost made us forget that epoch of anarchy and calamities which seemed to have dried up the sources of public prosperity.

"But evils yet remain to be healed, and inquietudes to be dissipated. The French People, after having astonished the world by warlike exploits, expect of you, Citizen First Consul, all the benefits of that peace which you have procured for them.

"If seeds of discord still exist, the Proclamation of the Perpetual Consulate of Bonaparte will dissipate them. Every one will now rally around him. His powerful genius will support and preserve all. He exists only for the prosperity and the happiness of the French people. His constant efforts will be directed to encrease the national glory, and national greatness. What Nation, in fact, better deserves happiness, and

of

of what People more enlightened, or more ſenſible, can he deſire the eſteem and attachment?

"The Conſervative Senate will aſſociate itſelf with all the generous maxims of Government. It will ſecond, by all the means in its power, every amelioration which ſhall have for its end the prevention of the return of thoſe evils by which we have been ſo long afflicted, and the extenſion and conſolidation of thoſe benefits which you have conferred upon us. It is their duty alſo to contribute to the accompliſhment of the wiſhes of the People, which have been manifeſted in a manner ſo honourable to their zeal and their diſcernment.

"The Senatus Conſultum, which the Senate in a Body now preſent to you, Citizen Firſt Conſul, contains the expreſſion of its own gratitude. The Organ of the Sovereign Will, it was of opinion, could not better fulfil the intentions of the French People, than by calling in the aid of the arts to perpetuate the remembrance of this memorable event."

After this addreſs, Citizen Barthelemy, the Preſident, read the Act, of which the following is the tenor:

SENATUS CONSULTUM.

Extract from the Regiſter of the Conſervative Senate of the 2d of Auguſt.

The Conſervative Senate, of the Conſtitution, deliberating upon the Meſſage of the Conſuls of the Republic, of the 29th ult. Seeing the Proceſs Verbal prepared by the Special Committee, and which ſtates, that 3,577,259 Citizens have taken their ſuffrages, and that 3,568,885 Citizens have voted, that Napoleon Bonaparte ſhould be appointed Conſul for Life.

Conſidering that the Senate, eſtabliſhed by the Conſtitution as the organ of the people, in every thing in which the ſocial compact is intereſted, ought to manifeſt in a ſplendid manner the national gratitude towards the conquering and pacificating Hero, and to proclaim ſolemnly that it is the will of the French People to give to the Government every neceſſary ſtability and independence, in order to enſure the proſperity and glory of the Republic, decrees as follows:

Art. 1. The French People do appoint, and the Senate do proclaim, Napoleon Bonaparte Firſt Conſul for Life.

2. A Statue of Peace, holding in one hand the Laurel of Victory, and in the other the Decree of the Senate, ſhall atteſt to poſterity the gratitude of the Nation,

3. The Senate ſhall convey to the Firſt Conſul the expreſſion of the confidence, the love, and the admiration of the French people. (Signed)

BARTHELEMY, Preſi.

The Firſt Conſul replied as follows:

"SENATORS,

"The life of a Citizen belongs to his country. The people of France wiſh that the whole of mine ſhould be conſecrated to their ſervice, and I obey. In giving me this new, and permanent pledge of their confidence, they have impoſed upon me the duty of maintaining the ſyſtem of the Laws and Inſtitutions of the Republic. By my efforts, by your co-operation, Citizen Senators, and that of the Conſtituted Authorities, and by the confidence and will of this immenſe people, the Liberty, Equality, and Proſperity of the people of France will be ſecured from all the accidents which ariſe from the uncertainty of futurity.—The beſt people ſhall, as they deſerve, be the moſt happy, and their happineſs ſhall contribute to that of all Europe.

"Content with having been called by the order of Him from whom every thing emanates, to bring back upon the earth Juſtice, Order, and Equality, I ſhall hear my laſt hour ſound without regret, and without any uneaſineſs about the opinion of future generations.

"Senators, receive my thanks for this ſolemn proceeding. The deſire of the Senate has expreſſed the wiſh of the people of France, and is thereby more ſtrongly connected with whatever remains to be done for the happineſs of the people of France. It is very gratifying to me to be aſſured of this by the ſpeech of ſo diſtinguiſhed a Preſident."

The Members of the Senate then retired.

At the Audience which ſucceeded, the following Engliſh Noblemen and Gentlemen were preſented by Mr Merry:

Lord Holland, Lord Cloncurry, Mr Grey, M. P. Col. Brereton, Lieut.-Colonel Baldwin, Captain Wilbraham, Mr Cockerell, M. P. Mr Francis, M. P. Mr Francis, junior, Mr Ponſonby, Capt. Eyre, Mr Baker, Captain Eyton, Captain Jones, Lieutenant Warner, Mr Heathcote, Mr Marell, Mr Skene, Captain Stroud, Mr Parry, Mr Carlyon.

The following Circular Letter has been

been ſent by the Miniſter of the Interior to the Prefects of the different Departments, dated 4th Auguſt.—I ſend you, Citizen Prefect, the Senatus Conſultum, which proclaims the Will of the French People. You will cauſe it to be proclaimed throughout the whole of your Department on the 15th of Auguſt. This day ſhall hereafter be conſecrated by the recollection of great events.

"The 15th of Auguſt is at once the Anniverſary of the Birth-day of the Chief Conſul, of the Signature of the Concordat, and the day on which the People of France, wiſhing to ſecure and perpetuate their happineſs, have connected its duration with that of the glorious career of Napoleon Bonaparte.

"Let this great day be celebrated by acts of benevolence. I invite you, Citizen Prefect, to conſecrate the whole of it to happineſs, by uniting in marriage thoſe individuals who are moſt eminent for their virtue.

(Signed) "*Chaptal.*"

NEW FRENCH CONSTITUTION.

PARIS, *Aug.* 5.

Title I.

There ſhall be in each Canton a Cantonal Aſſembly, in each Sub-Prefecture a Diſtrict Electoral College, and in each Department a Departmental Electoral College.

Title II.

CANTONAL ASSEMBLIES.

The Cantonal Aſſemblies ſhall be compoſed of all the Citizens who are domiciliated in the Canton, and who are inſcribed on the Communal Liſt. The Preſident of the Cantonal Aſſembly ſhall be appointed by the Firſt Conſul for five years, and may be indefinitely re-appointed. The Cantonal Aſſembly ſhall nominate two Citizens, from whom the Firſt Conſul ſhall chuſe a Juſtice of Peace for the Canton, and an Aſſiſtant, for five years.

The Firſt Conſul ſhall chuſe the Mayors and Adjuncts in the Municipal Councils for five years.

He is aſſiſted by four Inſpectors; two of them being the oldeſt, and the other two the moſt heavily taxed of the Citizens having a right to vote in the Cantonal Aſſembly.

They are, each of them, aſſiſted by two Inſpectors, the one being the oldeſt, and the other the moſt heavily taxed of the Citizens having a right to vote in the ſection.

The Government ſhall convoke the Cantonal Aſſemblies, fix the period of their duration, and the object of their aſſembling.

Title III.

THE ELECTORAL COLLEGES.

The Diſtrict Electoral Colleges ſhall conſiſt of one Member for every 500 inhabitants domiciliated in the Diſtrict, but not to exceed 200, or be leſs than 120. The Members are for life.

The Firſt Conſul ſhall appoint the Preſidents of the Electoral Colleges each Seſſion, who alone ſhall have the care of the Police of the Colleges, when aſſembled.

In order to the formation of the Electoral Colleges of departments, there ſhall be drawn up in each department, under the orders of the Miniſter of Finance, a liſt of 600 Citizens, who are moſt heavily taxed, *fonciere mobilaire et ſemptuaire et au role des patentes.*

The Firſt Conſul may add to each Diſtrict Electoral College ten Citizens, taken from the Legion of Honour, and to each Departmental Electoral College, 20 Citizens, 10 of them from amongſt 30 of the moſt reſpectable inhabitants of the Department, and the other 10 from the Legion of Honour. He ſhall not be compelled to make theſe nominations at any determined period.

The Electoral Colleges of Diſtricts ſhall preſent to the Firſt Conſul two Citizens for each vacancy in the Diſtrict Council, one of them to be a Member of the College. The Diſtrict Councils to be one-third renewed every five years.

The Electoral Colleges can only aſſemble in virtue of an Act of Convocation from Government, and in the place aſſigned for that purpoſe: they cannot occupy themſelves with any ſubject for which they were not convoked, nor protract their Sittings beyond the time fixed by the Act of Convocation. If they do, the Government has a right to diſſolve them.

Title IV.

THE CONSULS.

The Conſuls are for life. They are Members of the Senate, and one of them Preſident.

The Second and Third Conſuls ſhall be appointed by the Senate, on the preſentation

ſentation of the Firſt Conſul. For this purpoſe, when one of the two places becomes vacant, the Firſt Conſul ſhall preſent one to the Senate; and if he is not appointed, he may preſent a ſecond, and if he is not appointed, a third, who muſt be appointed.

When the Firſt Conſul deems it convenient, he may preſent a Citizen to ſucceed him after his death, according to the forms preſcribed by the preceding Article.

The Citizen appointed to ſucceed the Firſt Conſul, ſhall take the Oath to the Republic from the hands of the Firſt Conſul, aſſiſted by the Second and Third Conſuls, in the preſence of the Senate, the Miniſters, the Council of State, Legiſlative Body, &c.

The Oath ſhall be as follows:

"I ſwear to maintain the Conſtitution, to reſpect the liberty of Conſcience, to oppoſe the return of Feudal Inſtitutions; never to make War except for the Defence and Glory of the Republic, and to employ the Power with which I ſhall be inveſted, only for the happineſs of the People, from whom and for whom I have received it."

The Oath being taken, he ſhall take his ſeat in the Senate, immediately next the Firſt Conſul.

The Firſt Conſul may depoſit in the Archives of Government, his wiſh as to the nomination of a Succeſſor to be preſented to the Senate after his death. In that caſe, he ſhall ſummon the Second and Third Conſuls, the Miniſters, and the Preſident of the Sections of the Council of State. In their preſence he ſhall deliver to the Secretary of State, the Paper ſealed with his Seal, in which his Will is contained. The paper ſhall be ſubſcribed by all thoſe preſent at the act. The Secretary of State ſhall depoſit it amongſt the Archives of Government, in the preſence of the Miniſters and the Preſidents of the Sections of the Council of State. The Firſt Conſul may withdraw his Depot, obſerving the formalities preſcribed in the preceding Article.

After the death of the Firſt Conſul, if his Will is depoſited, the Paper which contains it ſhall be taken from amongſt the Archives of Government by the Secretary of State, in the preſence of the Miniſters and Preſidents of the Sections of the Council of State; its integrity and identity being recognized in preſence of the Second and Third Conſuls.

If the perſon preſented by the Firſt Conſul is not appointed, the Second and Third Conſuls ſhall each preſent one; and in caſe neither ſhall be appointed, they ſhall each preſent another, one of which laſt two muſt be appointed. In every caſe, the preſentations and appointments muſt be concluded within 24 hours after the death of the Firſt Conſul.

The Law ſhall fix for the life of each Firſt Conſul, the expences of Government.

THE SENATE.

The Senate is to regulate by a *Senatus Conſultum*, 1ſt, The Conſtitution of the Colonies. 2d, Every thing neceſſary for the Conſtitution, which has not been previouſly provided; and, 3d, It is to explain theſe Articles of the Conſtitution upon which any doubts may ariſe.

The Senate, by acts intitled *Senatus Conſulta*, may,

1ſt, Suſpend in any Department the Functions of Jurors for five years, if neceſſary.

2d, It may declare any Department out of the protection of the Conſtitution, if circumſtances require it.

3d, It is to determine the period at which perſons who are liable by virtue of the 46th Article of the Conſtitution, ſhall be brought before the Tribunals of Trial.

4th, It is to annul the judgments of Civil and Criminal Tribunals, when their deciſions are inconſiſtent with the ſafety of the State.

5th, It diſſolves the Legiſlative Body and the Tribunate.

6th, It chuſes the Conſuls.

The plans of Senatus Conſulta are to be previouſly diſcuſſed in a Privy Council, compoſed of the Conſuls, two Miniſters, two Senators, two Counſellors of State, and two grand Officers of the Legion of Honour.—The Chief Conſul is to nominate the Members who are to compoſe the Privy Council.

The Firſt Conſul ratifies Treaties of Peace and Alliance, after having taken the opinion of the Privy Council. He is to communicate them to the Senate before they are promulgated.

In the courſe of the enſuing year, the Senate will proceed to the election of 14 Citizens to complete the number of 80 Senators. This nomination is to be made

made by the Senate on the preſentation of the Firſt Conſul.

The Miniſters of the Grand Council of the Legion of Honour are to be Members of the Senate, whatever their age may be.

The Firſt Conſul may add to the Senate, (without any previous preſentation by the Electoral Colleges of the Departments,) any Citizens diſtinguiſhed for their ſervices and their talents.

COUNSELLORS OF STATE.

The Counſellors of State are never to exceed the number of fifty.

LEGISLATIVE BODY.

Every Department is to have in the Legiſlative body, a number of Members proportioned to the extent and population of the Department.

THE TRIBUNATE.

After the thirteenth year of the Republic, the Tribunate ſhall be reduced to 50 Members; half of the 50 are to go out every three years.

ADMINISTRATION OF JUSTICE.

There is to be one Grand Judge Miniſter of Juſtice. He is to have a diſtinguiſhed place in the Senate and the Council of State. He is to preſide in the Tribunals of Appeal whenever Government thinks fit. He has a right to watch over the Tribunals and the Juſtices of the Peace, and to review their proceedings.

The Tribunal of Caſſation, the Miniſter of Juſtice being Preſident, has a right to cenſure over other Tribunals; it may, upon ſerious cauſe, ſuſpend the other Judges, and may ſummon them before the Grand Judge, to give an account of their conduct.

The Tribunals of Appeal have the right of inſpecting the proceedings of the Civil Tribunals of this Diſtrict, and the Civil Tribunals have the ſame right with regard to the Juſtices of the Peace in their Diſtrict.

The Members of the Tribunal of Caſſation (or Superior Tribunal of Appeal,) are appointed by the Senate on the preſentation of the Chief Conſul. He is to preſent three Perſons for every place that is vacant.

OF MERCY.

The Firſt Conſul has the power of extending Mercy, after having heard the caſe diſcuſſed in a Privy Council, compoſed of the Grand Judge, two Miniſters, two Senators, two Counſellors of State, and two Members of the ſuperior Tribunal of Appeal.

The Council of State, after having diſcuſſed the above Projet, which had been laid before them by the Conſuls, Approve of it, and decree that it ſhall be preſented to the Conſuls according to the regular form.

(Signed) J. G. LOCRE.
Secretary to the Council of State.
(Approved) BONAPARTE, Firſt Conſul.
H. B. MARET, Sec. of Stat.

The Projet of the above Senatus Conſultum was laid before the Conſervative Senate by the Counſellors of State Regnier, Portalis, and Deſſolles, and was adopted by them in the Sitting of that day (the 4th inſt.)

DOMESTIC INTELLIGENCE.

LONDON.—Auguſt 17.

We congratulate the country upon the general appearance and progreſs of the harveſt, which we venture to pronounce one of the fineſt that has been known for many years. In Surrey, Middleſex, Berkſhire, Oxfordſhire, Buckinghamſhire, Eſſex, and Suſſex, the reaping commenced generally at the beginning of the laſt week. About Hereford it began on Wedneſday; and generally in Worceſterſhire on Thurſday. In numerous places, the harveſt is not only carried, but the land is laid down under turnips.—The diſbanding of the militia, and the reduction of ſo large a proportion of our military eſtabliſhment, have given to the farmers every neceſſary aſſiſtance, and enabled them to take full advantage of the fine weather. The turnips are finer than at any former period ſince their introduction into agriculture; and the after-graſs and clovers make ample amends for the deficiency in the early crops. Peaſe, beans, &c. are all abundant, and the former in moſt places carried. The Hay in Devonſhire, Herefordſhire, Shropſhire, and moſt of the northern counties, has been well ſaved; it is only in the counties contiguous to the capital, where the hay harveſt is always forward, that it has been unfavourable.

Tueſday, Auguſt 3.

M. Garnerin, Madame Garnerin, and Mr Duncan Glaſsford, aſcended in a Balloon at ſeven o'clock this evening at Vauxhall, and after traverſing a great quantity of ſpace, landed ſafely at eight o'clock,

o'clock, in Lord Roſlynn's Grounds at Hampſtead. When at a conſiderable height above the River, a Kitten was let down in a Baſket, by a Parachute. It deſcended at firſt with great velocity, but the Parachute ſoon expanded, and Puſs landed in perfect ſafety in the Gardens at Milbank. A paper was tied to her with theſe words, "This Kitten aſcended in a Balloon; whoever will bring it to Madame Garnerin, will receive One Guinea Reward." She was taken up by a Waterman, in good health, though in great conſternation, and a little bruiſed. M. Garnerin and Mr Glaſsford waved the flags of Great Britain and France. Madame Garnerin was elegantly dreſſed in white muſlin, and was in high ſpirits. She is a handſome woman. M. Garnerin received for his aſcenſion L. 250, and a third of the receipts. There was an immenſe crowd of ſpectators, and a great number of pickpockets.

The Court Phyſician at Schwerin, Bouchoiz, has received from the Emperor of Ruſſia a preſent of a diamond ring, for a copy of his work, called, a Complete Treatiſe on the Cow Pox.

Friday, Auguſt 6.

The Seſſions of the Peace for Saliſbury were held before the Worſhipful the Mayor, the Right Hon. the Earl of Radnor, the Recorder, and other Magiſtrates.

The Noble Earl delivered a very impreſſive charge, at the commencement of which he expreſſed his regret that a part of the county of Wilts ſhould be at preſent the ſcene of riot and diſorder. It might be thought that this was not a ſubject of conſideration in a Court ſo limited in its juriſdiction; but this objection would not weigh, when it was recollected how ſuddenly the baneful influence of this deſtructive ſpirit might reach the city, on account of the uſe of machinery, invented to lighten human labour, to promote our manufactures, and increaſe our national proſperity. That theſe were the effects of the uſe of that machinery could not be doubted; and his Lordſhip begged to illuſtrate the poſition by two familiar examples:—Before the invention of Printing, knowledge could be diſſeminated by the pen alone; were our anceſtors, he aſked, better off than ourſelves, in conſequence of their confined mode of communication? Or could any one wiſh to abandon the advantages of the Preſs, becauſe manual labour was abridged by it? Yet the writers before employed might complain, as our manufacturers now do, that their employment was injured. Again, could we wiſh to aboliſh the uſe of the Plough, and cultivate the earth with the ſpade alone? Certainly not. The uſe of theſe machines excited no ſenſation, becauſe they were familiar to us! and ſo it would be with the machinery to facilitate the manufacture of cloth, which, notwithſtanding the prejudice againſt it, by increaſing our trade would add to the employment of the manufacturers, inſtead of diminiſhing it. His Lordſhip then remarked, that even if the workmen in the manufactories were under real inſtead of imaginary hardſhips, it was unpardonable in this country to reſort to rioting, ſince they could with facility apply to Parliament for redreſs, and their caſe would be coolly and candidly diſcuſſed by Parliament. He concluded with ſhewing the neceſſity for all Magiſtrates, Peace Officers, &c. to be vigilant in ſuppreſſing every germ and ſymptom of diſorder on its firſt appearance.

Friday, Auguſt 20.

Inſtance of Courage and Brutality.

This day a dreadful Battle took place in a field on the Tyburn Road, betwixt Belcher and Bourke. After fourteen rounds, Bourke was taken up in a ſtate of inſenſibility, much cut and bruiſed. He was heard to groan very much as he was conveyed home in a Hackney Coach. Indeed, he could neither ſee nor ſtand. Belcher was not in the leaſt hurt, except one bruiſe; after the victory, which intitles him to be called the Champion of England, he leapt up three times three feet high, amidſt the applauſes of the people.—About three thouſand perſons were preſent, and immenſe ſums were loſt and won upon this ſavage occaſion.

From the London Papers, Aug. 17.

YORK ASSIZES.

Breach of Promiſe of Marriage.

Storey v. *Eagle.*

Mr Serjeant Heywood ſtated the caſe of the Plantiff; he obſerved, that of all the wounds which can be given to the feelings of an individual, the one which is perhaps the moſt ſeverely felt, is that injury for which his client now ſought for compenſation. She was, it is true,

in

in a very humble ſituation of life, a maid ſervant; but the feelings of the humbleſt individual are not wantonly and barbarouſly to be outraged in this Free Country, nor ſolemn promiſes to be broken without giving that individual a right to appeal to a Jury for a compenſation adequate to the injury ſuſtained. It was not merely to recover damages that his client brought the preſent action, but alſo to vindicate her character, which ſhe found might ſuffer from ſo ſudden and unaccountable a deſertion as ſhe experienced from the man who had publicly profeſſed himſelf her lover, and courted her for two years, and yet quitted her the day before that which was appointed for their marriage, and married another. The Defendant in this action was alſo himſelf in a humble ſituation of life; he had been an hoſtler in the town of Knareſbourgh when firſt he began his courtſhip, but is now an innkeeper in that town, and worth 600l. by his own confeſſion.

The caſe being fully proved, Lord Ellenborough ſaid, that it had been clearly proved that the Defendant had, both by his conduct, and by his expreſs promiſe, raiſed expectations which he had defrauded, and hopes which he had deceived: the Jury were, therefore, bound to give compenſation in damages for the injury ſo received from the Defendant by the Plaintiff.—There were however, no very aggravating circumſtances attending this caſe, and, in giving damages, the Jury ſhould take care not utterly to ruin the Defendant.

The Jury, found for the Plaintiff—Fifty Pounds Damages.

Thurſday were landed at Plymouth, fifteen large caſes, full of curious pillars, ſtatues, and inſcriptions, from Egypt, ſhipped in La Diane, of 44 guns, Capt. Stephenſon, at Alexandria, by order of Lord Elgin, Ambaſſador at the Ottoman Porte. Theſe caſes of curioſities are to remain under the Cuſtom-houſe locks till orders are received from the Commiſſioners of the Cuſtoms in London, as to their future diſpoſal.

The following Officers of the Royal Marine Corps, on account of their eminent ſervices, are to retire upon their full pay;—Colonels Varlo, Macdonald, Cuming, Monro, Spry, Archibald.—Captains Patten, A. Ball, Colby, Foſter, G. Young, Weir, Simpſon, Hopper.—Captain Lieutenant Rea. Firſt Lieuts. Halls, Ranſley, Ede. Second Lieuts. Tait, R. W. P. Day, and Green.

On Tueſday morning, at eight o'clock, a very ſingular circumſtance occurred at Teignmouth. The ſea, at low water, inſtantaneouſly roſe and fell nearly two feet, ſeveral times, in the ſpace of ten minutes; and the fiſhing ſmacks at ſea experienced ſuch a violent commotion, that they were in danger of being loſt. The ſame phenomenon has been obſerved at Exmouth, Weymouth, and ſeveral places along the coaſt.

Saturday, Auguſt 21.

Thomas Cooper, late Mate of the brig Adventure, ſunk off Brighton, underwent an examination before the Lord Mayor. Hand-bills had been ſent from the Manſion-houſe to the coaſt of Suffolk, where he was ſuppoſed to be concealed, offering a reward of 100l. for his apprehenſion; and theſe bills being ſeen by the priſoner's friends, they informed the Magiſtrates in the county, that they would deliver him up on condition of his being admitted as King's evidence againſt the Captain and others belonging to the veſſel. He was accordingly brought to town on Saturday. When brought before the Lord Mayor he made a full confeſſion of this nefarious tranſaction. He ſaid he was the perſon who had bored holes in the brig with an augur, which he ſaid he did by the direction of perſons whoſe names we ſhall not mention.—He alſo ſwore that the ſhip had been plundered previous to this tranſaction; and that every thing had been done with a deſign to defraud the Underwriters. Two other perſons were then examined; one of them was a waterman and lighterman, who had been employed to carry goods to the veſſel when taking in her lading in London. He ſwore that by particular deſire of perſons whom we ſhall not name, he depoſited in a certain wharf ten tons of bale goods, which ſhould have been, and were underſtood to have been put on board the brig as part of her cargo. The other witneſs had been on board the brig for the purpoſe of being a ſupercargo, but left her in the Downs, in conſequence of not having a proper ſettlement with the owners. He ſwore the brig was, when he left her, in very good condition, fit to weather the *Bay of Biſcay*, and perform her intended voyage from London to Leghorn. The whole of the crew of this brig, together with the owners, are now in cuſtody, and will ſhortly be all brought together for a final examination.

The Adventure has been weighed up and gone to Shoreham. The plank through which the hole was made, in conſequence of which ſhe ſunk, has been taken out of her, and ſent ſealed up to London.

Friday,

Friday, August 27.

The final examination took place at the Manſion-houſe, of William Codling, captain of the Adventure brig. Thomas Cooper, mate of the ſaid veſſel, who was admitted as a King's evidence, depoſed, he was prevailed upon by the Captain to join in a ſcheme for ſinking the veſſel, after having firſt plundered her. On Saturday night, he, by deſire of the Captain, broke open ſome boxes containing watches, which the Captain carried aſhore at Deal; the Captain provided augurs for boring holes in the ſhip's bottom, and the next day, the veſſel being near Brigton, the witneſs, at the Captain's deſire, bored ſeveral holes in the ſhip's bottom; that on Sunday, finding the ſhip make a good deal of water, they were all buſily employed at the pumps; but the Captain cried out, "D——n you, never mind her; d——n the pumps, let her go to the bottom." Several boats came off to her aſſiſtance, but the Captain would not ſuffer them to come alongſide, but called out to them to ſtand off, ſaying they ſhould have nothing to do with the veſſel till he had done with her. It was alſo proved, that ſeveral kinds of goods had been ordered to be ſhipped on board the Adventure, which never was put aboard, though they were inſured. The evidence being cloſed, Capt. Codling and Mr M'Farlane refuſed, at the preſent ſtage of the buſineſs, to make any defence, but requeſted that they might be admitted to bail. This was refuſed, and they were fully committed to Newgate, to take their trials capitally, at the next Admiralty Seſſions at the Old Bailey.

The following remarkable circumſtance may be depended on as a fact:—The ſhip Fair American, was loſt about ſix years ago off the Iſle of Wight, and many boxes and other property were ſtolen from her; yeſterday morning, (Auguſt 20th,) however, Meſſrs Hopkins and Gray, who were principally intereſted, received a box containing 49 watches, and within it this ſhort note: "Adverti'e theſe, that the right owner may have them, and when I ſee that done, I will ſend you the remainder."

Shortly before Prince Henry of Pruſſia died, he gave orders to Count Rocheaymon, his Adjutant, to take to the King his nephew, after his burial, the ſword which his Royal Highneſs wore in the Seven Years War, with which he gained ſo many brilliant victories for the Pruſſian Monarchy. The Prince's remains were interred on the 5th inſtant, (*Auguſt*,) in the chapel of the Palace of Rheinſberg. His Highneſs himſelf wrote his Epitaph, which will now be placed upon his tomb.

EPITAPH.

Thrown by birth
into
the vortex of a giddy vapour,
which
the vulgar call Glory and Grandeur,
but
the nullity of which is too well known to
the Sage;
a prey to all human infirmities,
tormented by the paſſions of others,
diſturbed by his own,
and borne down by the loſs of beloved
relations,
true and faithful friends,
yet often, too, conſoled by friendſhip;
happy in collecting his thoughts,
happier ſtill
where his ſevices could prove uſeful to
his country,
or ſuffering humanity.
This,
a brief Sketch of the Life of
HENRY FREDERICK LOUIS,
Son of FREDERICK WILLIAM I. King
of Pruſſia,
and of
SOPHIA DOROTHEA, Daughter of GEO. I.
King of England.
TRAVELLER!
Remember that perfection is not to be
found on Earth,
If I was not the beſt of Men,
I did not belong to the number of the Bad.
Praiſe and Blame cannot reach him that
ſleeps in Eternity;
but
Sweet Hope embelliſhes the laſt Hours
of the Man who has done his Duty:
Nor does it forſake me at this Moment!

SCOTLAND.

EDINBURGH.—*Sunday, Auguſt* 1.

This morning, about three o'clock, the poſt-boy bringing the mail from the weſt country, was ſtopped about three miles weſt from Linlithgow, by two men, who led the horſe and boy into a field, where they tied a napkin over the boy's eyes, andalſo tied his hands behind his back, threatening inſtant deſtruction if he made the ſmalleſt noiſe. They then carried the mail about

100 yards from the place where the boy was, where they cut up the mail and bags, and took out the letters. The boy remained blindfolded and tied for an hour, when he found means to refcue himfelf, and feeing no perfon near him, he made the beft of his way to a farmer's houfe in the neighbourhood, to whom he communicated what had happened. The farmer immediately fent out his fervants on horfeback, in all directions, but they could get no traces of the robbers.

Tuesday August 3.

Robert Brown and James Clerk, alias Stewart, both deferters from one of the regiments of Foot Guards, were apprehended in the New Town, on fufpicion of being concerned in the robbery of the mail. The circumftances that gave rife to the fufpicion are faid to be thefe:—Two men, who now turn out to be the prifoners, went to a public-houfe on Monday, and afked for fomething for dinner. The fervant who attended them, obferving them counting a large parcel of Bank notes, communicated this to her mafter, who fuppofing they might be concerned in the robbery, had them followed to their lodgings. Information being given, and a warraut obtained, they were next day apprehended on the ftreet, and carried before the Sheriff, where they were examined and committed to ftand trial. When they were apprehended, a 20l. note and feveral fmall notes, in the whole amounting to about 60l. were found in their poffeffion. On Wednefday two Gentlemen of the Poft Office, accompanied by two Sheriff officers, went in chaifes, along with Brown, to a hill furrounded with wood in the neighbourhood of Linlithgow, where he fhewed them the letters, &c. hid in a hole in the earth, and covered with a large ftone. All the bills which happened to be in the letters were burnt by the depredators, to prevent detection.

Aug. 6. The Annual Examination of the High School of Edinburgh took place. The Young Gentlemen in the different Claffes went through their Exercifes, in a manner that did great Honour to themfelves, and their Maffers. The Gold Medal, the gift of Colonel Peter Murray, was adjudged to Maffer Beatfon, Dux of the Higheft Clafs. Inferiptions.

On the one fide:—

GUL. STUART BEATSON.
Puero optime Merito, Condiscipulorum,
DUCI.
Ad MDCCCII.

On the other fide:—

Præmium MURRÆANUM,
In Scholis EDINBURGENSI.

Friday Auguft 6.

A moft unprecedented outrage took place in the neighbourhood of Montrofe. It was the day of Election of a Member of Parliament for the Montrofe diftrict of Burghs; and as Mr Farquhar was underftood to have fucceeded in the canvas, his Election was a matter of mere form. Provoft Lyell, the delegate for Montrofe, and Mr Brand of Lauriflon, the delegate for Bervie, fet off, in company with feveral of Mr Farquhar's friends, in three chaifes, from Montrofe, to witnefs his election. At Dun, where the road to Brechin is narrow, and obfcured by trees, the firft chaife, containing Provoft Lyell, and two other Gentlemen, was ftopped by a man on horfeback, armed with piftols and a fabre. He demanded to know whether Mr Brand was in the chaife, but being anfwered in the negative, he left them to purfue their journey. On coming to Mr Brand's carriage, which was next in order, the fame fellow, who had now been joined by two others, one on horfeback, and another on foot, knocked Mr Brand's Poftilion from the horfe, and mounting in his place, drove off with great expedition, along a crofs road leading directly from Erechin, efcorted by a horfeman on each fide. It would appear, however, that they expected fome deceit, and on feeing the firft carriage driving towards Brechin with redoubled fpeed, they imagined that Mr Brand (who was their object, and whom luckily they did not know) to be there. Leaving the care of Mr Brand and his friends to their new driver, the horfemen-wheeled about in order to re-examine the firft carriage, and Mr Brand and one of his companions, *du voyage*, embracing the lucky moment, threw open both doors of the carriage, and with great intrepidity leaped out, fecreting themfelves in a corn field, remained fnug till the purfuit or the returning of the horfemen were over—when they reached a farm houfe, from which they were fafely conducted by the farm fervants with pitch forks, &c. to Brechin, in good time to the Election. The Sheriff examined feveral witneffes, whofe examination occupied two days.

Mr Alexander Campbell, writer in Dumbarton, is appointed Sheriff Subftitute of the county of Renfrew, in the room of the late Mr David Hutchefon.

The King has been pleafed to appoint James Craufurd, Efq; to be his Majefty's Agent at Rotterdam.

Tuesday, Auguft 10.

ELECTION OF PEERS.

This day came on, at the Palace of Holyrood-houfe, the Election of Sixteen Peers

Peers, to repreſent the Peerage of Scotland in the enſuing Parliament, when the following Noblemen were choſen, viz.

No. of Votes.		No. of Votes.
Mar. of Tweedale,	54	Earls, Balcarras*, 56
Earls, Eglintoun,	59	Aboyne, 56
Caſſilis,	57	Breadalbane, 57
Strathmore,	53	Stair, 58
Dumfries,	51	Glaſgow, 58
Elgin,	53	Lords, Cathcart, 52
Dalhouſie,	57	Somerville, 50
Northeſk,	57	Napier, 52

* In place of Lord Torphichen.

There were only two other Candidates, viz. the Earl of Lauderdale, who had 24, and Lord Elphinſtone, 37 votes.

Lord Kinnaird gave one vote for the Earl of Buchan, and the Duke of Argyle voted for the Earl of Eglinton only.

The Peers who voted for the Earl of Lauderdale were, Marquis of Tweeddale, Earls of Buchan, Eglintoun, Caſſilis, Lauderdale, Dalhouſie, Northeſk, Balcarras, Breadalbane, Stair; Lords Semple, Elphinſtone, Torphichen, Belhaven, Kinnaird. Proxies.—Duke of Rothſay, (Prince of Wales,) Earl of Dundonal. Signed Liſts.—Duke of Hamilton, Duke of Lennox, Earls of Crawfurd, Abercorn, Dyſart, Bute, and Galloway.

Peers Present.

Marquis of Tweedale	Earl of Dunmore
Earl of Morton	Stair
Buchan	Glaſgow
Eglintoun	Viſct. Arbuthnot
Caſſilis	Lord Sinclair
Moray	Semple
Strathmore	Elphinſtone
Kellie	Torphichen
Lauderdale	Napier
Dalhouſie	Banff
Leven	Elibank
Northeſk	Belhaven
Balcarras	Rollo
Aboyne	Kinnaird
Breadalbane	

Proxies.

His Royal Highneſs (Prince of Wales,)	the Duke of Rothſay, to the Earl of Caſſilis.
Duke of Argyle	to Earl of Eglintoun
Earl of Errol	to Earl of Glaſgow
Earl of Dundonald	to Earl of Lauderdale
Earl of Hyndford	to Earl of Stair
Lord Cathcart	to Lord Napier

Signed Lists.

Duke of Hamilton	Earl of Galloway
Buccleugh	Kinnoul
Lennox	Dumfries
Gordon	Dyſart
Queenſberry	Kintore
Athole	Bute
Montroſe	Hopetoun
Roxburgh	Deloraine
Earls of Crawfurd	Viſcount Falkland
Caithneſs	Lord Somerville
Home	Reay
Abercorn	Kirkcudbright
Haddington	

HIGH COURT OF JUSTICIARY.

Monday, Auguſt 30.

The Court met this day, when Robert Brown, and James Clark, *alias* Stewart, were put to the bar, being accuſed of robbing the mail coming from the Weſt Country to this City, on the morning of the 1ſt Auguſt. The Lord Advocate roſe and ſtated, that owing to the unavoidable abſence of ſome material witneſſes, he was under the neceſſity of delaying the trial of the priſoners *pro loco et tempore*, and preſented a petition, praying for a new warrant to re-commit them to jail, which was granted.

When the above priſoners were carried back to jail, James Anderſon, accuſed of ſundry acts of theft, was put to the bar, as alſo Adam Frizzle, accuſed of ſheep-ſtealing; they both preſented petitions for baniſhment, which being aſſented to by the Lord Advocate, the Court pronounced ſentence, by which Anderſon is baniſhed from Scotland for life, and Frizzle for fourteen years.

31. This day there were 280 bolls of Oatmeal in Edinburgh market, which ſold from 16s. to 17s. per boll.—Retail Prices per peck of Beſt Oatmeal, 1s. 1½d. Second, 1s. 1d.—There were alſo 40 bolls of Peaſe and Barley Meal, which ſold from 11s. to 13s. per boll —Retail Prices per peck, 10d. to 11d.

Price of Potatoes in Edinburgh market, Sixpence the peck.

BIRTHS.

At London, Lady Elizabeth Halliday, a daughter.

At his houſe, in Gower ſtreet, London, the Lady of Alexander Brymer, Eſq. a ſon.

At Caſtle Eden, Mrs Burdon, wife of Rowland Burdon, Eſq. a ſon and heir.

The Marchioneſs of Wincheſter, a ſon.

1802. *July* 23. Mrs Forſter, wife of Robert Forſter, Eſq. of Brunton, a ſon—her *eighteenth* child.

30. Lady Ann Hope, a ſon, at Keith Houſe.

Aug. 2. At Giffordvale, Mrs Gardiner, a daughter.

8. In Charlotte Square, the Lady of James Colquhoun, Eſq. of Luſs, a daughter.

—. Mrs Jay of Lixmount, a ſon.

MARRIAGES.

At London, the Duke of St Albans to Miſs Manners.

At

At London, Mr Theddie, of Duke-ſtreet, to Miſs M'Dougall, daughter of the late A. M'Dougall, Eſq of Inverelk Houſe.

At St George's, Bloomſbury, George Leckie, Eſq. of Finſbury ſquare, to Miſs Elizabeth Horner, daughter of John Horner, Eſq. of Edinburgh.

At Dublin, Iſaac Weld, jun. Eſq. to Miſs M. A. Home, youngeſt daughter of the late Alexander Home, Eſq of Edinburgh.

Mr P. Mackay, merchant, Edinburgh, to Miſs Anne Taylor, daughter of the late William Taylor, Eſq.

At Paiſley, Mr Charles Downie, merchant, to Miſs Janet Murdoch, daughter of Mr George Murdoch, merchant.

At Paiſley, Mr Peter Mirrielees, Saddler in Glaſgow, to Miſs Jane Stewart, daughter of the late Mr James Stewart, merchant in Paiſley.

1802. *July* 29. At Edinburgh, Mr John Loudon, Purſer in his Majeſty's Navy, to Miſs Margaret Playfair, eldeſt daughter of Mr Robert Playfair, writer.

30. At Edinburgh, Captain Thomſon, of the Navy, to Miſs Grant Dickſon, third daughter of Mr William Dickſon, of the Bank, by Preſtonpans.

Aug. 2. Mr George Graham, merchant in Glaſgow, to Miſs Chriſtina Young, daughter of Mr William Young, Delftfield.

—. James Gilchriſt, Eſq. Writer to the Signet, to Miſs Jeſſie Corrie, daughter of Hugh Corrie, Eſq; of Culloch, Writer to the Signet.

3. Mr James MacFarquhar, merchant in Glaſgow, to Miſs Caroline Clarke, youngeſt daughter of the late Edward Clarke, Eſq.

5. At Forres, John H. Forbes, Eſq. Advocate, to Louiſa Cuming, third daughter of A. P. Cuming Gordon, Eſq. of Altyr, M. P.

11. In North Wales, the Right Hon. Lord Viſcount Kirkwall, to the Hon. Miſs Anna Maria Blaquiere, eldeſt daughter of Lord de Blaquiere.

11. At Edinburgh, Mr John Waugh, merchant, to Miſs Jane Lindſay, daughter of the deceaſed Mr David Lindſay, merchant.

20. At Edinburgh, James Home, Eſq. of Linhouſe, clerk to the ſignet, to Miſs Mitchell, eldeſt daughter of William Mitchell, Eſq of Brown's Square.

—. At Porto-Bello, John Jardine, Eſq. younger of Hallſide, Advocate, to Miſs Janet Maitland Bruce, only daughter of the late, and ſiſter to the preſent James Bruce, Eſq. of Kinnaird.

DEATHS.

His Royal Highneſs Prince Henry of Pruſſia, the Brother of Frederic the Great, of a paralytic attack, at his Palace at Rheinſberg, in the 77th year of his age.

At Dumfries, Miſs Anne Staig Wilſon, daughter of Mr William Wilſon, one of the Bailies of Dumfries.

Lately, of a malignant fever, Five children in the ſpace of a fortnight, the eldeſt only 10 years of age, all of one family, belonging to Mr George Cook, a reſpectable farmer at Lilling, near York.

1801. *July* 6. At Tobago, Mr Andrew Hood, late of Tarbolton.

21. At Liſbon, Capt. Simon Frazer, of the 72d regiment, Aid-de-Camp to General Fraſer, and ſon of James Fraſer, Eſq. of Gorthleck.

26. At Stirling, Jeſſey Tovey, the youngeſt daughter of Capt. Tovey, of the late 5th Regiment of Scots Militia.

—. At Glaſgow, in the 94th year of her age, Mrs Brown, widow of George Brown, Eſq. late Provoſt of Glaſgow.

30. At Edinburgh, Mr George Gregory, tin-ſmith.

—. At Langholm, aged 95 years, John Scott. He commenced the buſineſs of a common carrier between Edinburgh and Carliſle in 1740, and declined it only a ſhort time ago.

August 3. At Montroſe, Mr Robert Strachan, merchant, while converſing in the ſtreet with a friend.

—. At Weſtbarns, Mr Adam Watſon, merchant in Dunbar.

11. At Glaſgow, Mr Archibald Hunter, manufacturer.

14. At Glaſgow, James Watſon, Eſq. banker.

15. At Inverary, Lachlan Campbell, Eſq. Sheriff-Subſtitute of Argyleſhire.

16. Miſs Matilda Campbell, daughter of the late Col. Alexander Campbell of Barcaldine, at Sir John Sinclair's, Charlotte Square.

17. At Edinburgh, Miſs Kirkpatrick, ſen. of Cloſeburn.

20. At St Andrews, in the 85th year of his age, Alexander Scott, Eſq.

23. At Inverelk, Miſs Marion Dalrymple, ſecond daughter of the deceaſed David Dalrymple, Eſq. of Weſthall, one of the Senators of the College of Juſtice.

Errata in our laſt. Page 56. col. 2. line 24. *for* —o *read* To P. 57. col. 1. line 9. *for* hawkin' *read* howkin' l. 37. *for* The *read* Thae col. 2. l. 2 *for* As *read* Is l. 13. *for* bicken *read* birken l. 29 *for* patch *read* poutch